

THE SOUTHERN SPEECH JOURNAL

MAY, 1952

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THOMAS HUXLEY'S AMERICAN LECTURES ON EVOLUTION

WAYNE C. MINNICK*

American opinion concerning Darwin's theory of evolution was not yet firmly crystallized in September, 1876, when Thomas Huxley arrived in the United States to lecture. Nevertheless, implications of the theory had slowly begun to disturb the placid surface of American intellectual life stirring up uneasy forebodings, especially in the minds of those who clung devoutly to a literal belief in the first chapter of Genesis. For them Huxley's arrival was full of dark presentiment. As E. L. Godkin observed:

Professor Huxley and men like him . . . make their appearance now not simply as manipulators of a most interesting subject, but as disturbers of beliefs which are widely spread, deeply rooted, and surrounded by the tenderest and most sacred associations of human existence.¹

It appears that the role of "disturber of beliefs" was not unwelcome to Huxley. That it suited his temperament he had amply demonstrated in his previous spectacular clashes with clergymen, and it seems not unlikely that he pictured himself as a Messiah appointed to bring the theory of evolution into dramatic conflict with the American mind. There can be no question, however, that his lectures precipitated a heated collision of opinion in the American press or that the fervid and often bitter exchanges concerning them contributed to the widespread dissemination of Darwin's ideas in America.

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¹E. L. Godkin, "Professor Huxley's Lectures," *Nation*, XXIII (September 28, 1876), 192.

I

Delivered in Chickering Hall, New York City, on September 18, 20, 22, 1876, Huxley's lectures were called respectively: "The Three Hypotheses Respecting the History of Nature," "The Hypothesis of Evolution — The Neutral and the Favorable Evidence," and "The Demonstrative Evidence of Evolution."

Huxley's audience, according to the *New York Tribune*, was composed of "men eminent in the learned professions; of New York's best society." As the speaker approached the rostrum to deliver the first address, he was greeted with "abundant applause." He began speaking while the house was still in confusion. Many people were not yet seated and late arrivals continued to pour in. Huxley had scarcely uttered a sentence when someone toward the rear shouted, "Louder." Huxley did not respond. Presently the cries of, "Louder! Louder!" became general and Huxley was compelled to take notice. He stopped, looked out over the crowd, and said, "If my audience will be so kind as to be seated that difficulty will be largely removed." Then, scarcely raising his voice, he continued.²

E. L. Youmans, editor of *Popular Science Monthly*, described Huxley as a speaker in these words:

Prof. Huxley's manner as a speaker is very quiet; and by those who like the vehement and demonstrative style it would be considered tame, but his discourse is clear, finished, deliberate, and strong. Nor is it necessary that he should have a learned auditory to appreciate and enjoy his addresses. His command of his subject, of language and illustration, is so complete that he adapts himself with rare facility to the mental condition of his hearers.³

Another picture of Huxley was given in the *New York Tribune*. According to this report Huxley avoided manuscript and notes, grasped the desk with both hands, leaned over it intently, and "did not vary his position or make use of gestures during the lecture."⁴

On the platform beside Huxley when he delivered the second

²*New York Tribune*, September 19, 1876, 1.

³E. L. Youmans, "Prof. Huxley," *Popular Science Monthly*, IX (September, 1876), 622.

⁴*New York Tribune*, September 19, 1876, 1.

lecture of the series stood a large frame from which hung several diagrams and illustrations to be used in conjunction with the lecture. Most of the drawings were illustrations of the recent fossil discoveries made by Professor Othneil Marsh of Yale. Marsh had prepared the drawings for Huxley's use, and Huxley referred to them frequently, often prefacing his references with a tribute to Marsh.

In substance, Huxley's first lecture was a consideration and a rebuttal of prior theories concerning the origin of species. The first of these theories, that the universe had existed from all eternity without significant alteration, he rejected summarily. The second theory, the Biblical [or Miltonic theory as Huxley preferred to call it] he discounted at some length, arguing that this explanation did not coincide with the geological record, and that the evidence amassed by geologists could not "by any ingenuity of interpretation or stretching of the meaning of language be brought into harmony with the Miltonic hypothesis."⁵ Briefly he mentioned the theory of evolution and promised in the second and third lectures to discuss fully the evidence supporting the new hypothesis.

At the beginning of the second lecture he discussed Cuvier's concept of persistent types and even supplied additional evidence to prove the existence of many species that have been of remarkably long duration. But this fact, he maintained, was not inconsistent with Darwin's theory, for "whether the variations which are produced shall survive and supplant the parent, or whether the parent shall survive and supplant the variations, is a matter which depends entirely on those conditions which give rise to the struggle for existence."⁶ In the case of persistent types, environmental conditions have been such as to favor the parent type for long periods.

In the remainder of the lecture he considered the problem of intercalary forms whose existence must be supposed to bridge the gaps between divergent forms. In this respect he supplied the missing connection between birds and reptiles by describing the characteristics of the fossil *Archeopteryx* whose features are partially bird-like and partially reptilian.

In the third and final lecture Huxley described in some detail the skeleton of the modern horse and concluded that according to the

⁵Thomas Huxley, *American Addresses* (New York, 1877), 28.

⁶*Ibid.*, 39.

theory of evolution the modern horse must have been derived "from some quadruped which possessed five complete digits on each foot; which had the bones of the fore-arm and of the leg complete and separate; and which possessed thirty-four teeth. . . ."7 He then reasoned that if the horse had been evolved from such an ancestor, the different stages of its evolution ought to show a series of forms which gradually culminate in the structures which obtain in existing horses.

A detailed description of the evidence which Huxley produced to support this argument is unnecessary. Drawing heavily on Marsh's fossil collection, he presented a series of forms that demonstrated the gradual evolution of the modern horse from the generalized quadruped of the Eocene period.

Huxley concluded the lecture with a vigorous affirmation of his belief in evolution. He asserted that an inductive hypothesis is proved whenever the facts can be shown to be in accord with it and that, in his opinion, the doctrine of evolution was as convincingly proved as was the Copernican theory at the time of its promulgation. The proof of both hypotheses rested upon the same secure foundation — "the coincidence of the observed facts with theoretical requirements."⁸

II

To a society which was, as Godkin noted, but recently acquainted with Darwinism such strong language savored of dogmatism. Disagreement was not slow in coming. Theologians were especially vociferous in their comments. The New York *Tribune* of September 25 was full of their reactions. The Reverend Dr. Rylance of St. Marks Protestant Episcopal Church, The Reverend Thomas Crowther of the Memorial Presbyterian Church, Brooklyn, and the Reverend Dr. Willis of the Seventh Street Methodist Episcopal Church devoted their entire sermons to a discussion of the subject. The Reverend G. H. Hepworth and the Reverend W. T. Sabine made lengthy comments on the subject during their regular discourses while the Reverends Thomas E. Vermilye, James Ludlow, and Thomas E. Hastings

⁷*Ibid.*, 79.

⁸*Ibid.*, 90.

gave interviews to the *Tribune* reporters in which they spoke disparagingly of Huxley's work.⁹

Much of the clerical criticism was characterized by ingenious polemics designed to extract more acceptable conclusions from the evidence that Huxley had presented. Thomas Crowther, for example, admitted that at one time the horse's foot had five toes and that his teeth were comparatively imperfect. But he was unwilling to admit that this demonstrated the multiplication of species. "I assert," he stubbornly argued, "that the horse, when he possessed five toes and imperfect teeth, was as much a horse as he is today."¹⁰

The *Catholic World* uttered a more bellicose version of this same "a horse is a horse" type of criticism and prefaced the whole with a gratuitous insult for Huxley's edification:

To say plainly what we think of this long argumentation, we believe that it demonstrates nothing but the eminent talkative faculty of the lecturer . . . who told Prof. Huxley that the animal remains on which he bases his argument belong to different species, and not to different varieties of the same species? Surely a greater or less development of one or two bones cannot be considered as sufficient evidence of specific difference . . . the professor has no right to assume that the horse, the hipparion, the architherium, etc., are animals of different species; and therefore his argument has nothing to do with the evolution of one species from another.¹¹

A. M. Kirsch's skillful casuistry found in a single sentence a basis for discrediting Huxley's whole performance. Kirsch pounced with obvious glee on the following statement: "But we must recollect that any human belief, however broad in basis, however dependable it may seem, is, after all, only a probable belief, and that our broadest generalizations are simply the highest degree of probability." To Kirsch this admission made the proof of evolution impossible:

If human belief or certainty be only a probability then certainty and probability are identical, which would be as much as

⁹New York *Tribune*, September 25, 1876, 3.

¹⁰*Loc. cit.*

¹¹Anonymous, "Three Lectures on Evolution," *Catholic World*, XXIV (February, 1877), 629.

to say, that truth and falsehood can exist at one and the same time in one and the same thing, a statement no more absurd than Mr. Huxley's argument.

Now if this be the case, where is the use of Mr. Huxley's trying to convince his audience, by arguments, of the certainty of his theory.¹²

In Chicago where Huxley's lectures were reported in the *Tribune* on September 23 and 25, not much comment was aroused. The Reverend David Swing, however, preached to a large congregation on September 24 on "The Origin of the Organic World." In this discourse he did not attempt to refute Huxley's facts, but he did dispute the implication, evident in Huxley's lectures, that evolution and religion were incompatible. Huxley, he asserted, did not touch the problem of the origin of life, but dealt only with the modification of one species into another. What he said, therefore, casts no doubt at all on the existence of a supreme being. Indeed, it rather tends to substantiate the argument from design, for so intricate a process as evolution presupposes the existence of a governing intellect.¹³

But Huxley had champions as well as detractors. In many quarters his views were hailed with enthusiasm. The New York *Tribune* asserted that his lectures "must hold permanent place in the annals of science," and backed up its evaluation by publishing all of the addresses in a special supplement on September 22, 1876. E. L. Youmans, editor of the *Popular Science Monthly*, gave each of the lectures prominent place in that periodical, and a few months after they were delivered D. Appleton and Company published the lectures in book form.

Godkin defended Huxley against his critics by pointing out that "the mistake a good many newspaper writers — some of them ministers — have made in passing judgment on the lectures lies in supposing that this evidence must be weak and incomplete because *they* have not been convinced."¹⁴ He continued that there was no doubt that Darwinism was gaining ground. In the face of growing evidence in support of evolution he felt that spiritually-minded men needed to

¹²A. M. Kirsch, "Professor Huxley on Evolution," *American Catholic Quarterly*, II (October, 1877), 645.

¹³See the Chicago *Tribune*, September 25, 1876, 3.

¹⁴E. L. Godkin, "Professor Huxley's Lectures," *Nation*, XXIII (September 28, 1876), 192.

make some adjustment. To Godkin that adjustment was simple. Christian faith needed only to be separated from "all theories of the precise manner in which the world originated, or of the length of time it has lasted, as matters, for their purposes, of little or no moment."

J. G. Holland of *Scribner's Monthly* offered, with a little more vehemence, the same advice. He thought it was about time for Christian men and women to stop shaking in the presence of scientists for fear that God would be read out of the universe. It was time they received scientists as discoverers of God's works and ways of working. Their discoveries might alter some of man's old beliefs, but the belief in God and in his paternal interest in mankind will increase with every onward step that science achieves.¹⁵

Here was good counsel for men of disturbed belief. Perhaps no small benefit of Huxley's visit lay in the fact that it compelled many people, some for the first time, to reexamine their beliefs and to adjust them to a growing world.

III

The controversy aroused by Huxley's visit contrasts sharply with the apathy that, just ten years later, greeted the lectures of another Darwinian, Alfred Russell Wallace. The difference was so marked that the *Nation* was moved to comment:

Those who recall the great public interest awakened by the visit to this country of Profs. Huxley and Tyndall, can but feel surprise that their fellow-scientist, Dr. Alfred Russell Wallace, is receiving less attention — that his presence in this country is, indeed, hardly known away from Boston, where he has lately delivered a very acceptable course of "Lowell lectures."¹⁶

Although the *Nation* offered no explanation, the lack of interest in Wallace's lectures was in part the result of changed conditions. At the time of Huxley's visit the full impact of Darwinism had just begun to intrude upon American thinking. "Preoccupation with the issues which produced the Civil War," wrote Gabriel, "prevented an

¹⁵J. G. Holland, "Topics of the Time," *Scribner's Monthly*, XIII (December, 1876), 268.

¹⁶Anonymous, "Notes," *Nation*, XLIII (December 30, 1886), 544.

earlier general consideration of the philosophy of evolution."¹⁷ The closing of the war, however, left the nation free to appraise the disruptive features of a theory which seemed to clash so violently with the doctrine of a literally inspired scripture. E. L. Youmans, sensitive to the state of public opinion, pointed out the inevitability of widespread objection to Huxley's remarks. "The doctrine of evolution," he wrote in 1876, "which . . . [Huxley] advocated, is too recent, too comprehensive, too scientific, and encounters too many prejudices, to be generally or readily accepted merely because it is proved."¹⁸

When Wallace came to America a decade later, however, some of the prejudice against the theory had worn off. The idea was gaining ground that no essential clash existed between evolution and religion; hence, it was possible for many people to regard with equanimity, if not with complete indifference, the delivery of another series of lectures on evolution.

But the difference in the reaction to Huxley and Wallace is not fully explained unless some account is taken of the personality and reputation of the two men. Wallace's reputation in the States was, by his own admission, unimpressive. Nor did he have the pugnacious disposition that seems to characterize the successful advocate. He appeared in America merely as an obscure and unspectacular lecturer who quietly repeated the proofs of a theory that had long ago been cogently demonstrated.

Huxley, on the other hand, had been so completely identified with Darwinism and was by reputation so confirmed an agnostic that he had become, as the attitude expressed in the *Catholic World* reveals, almost a symbol for the anti-Christ:

. . . the management of the interests of science has lately fallen into the hands of an anti-Christian sect, which is either unable to understand or unwilling to recognize the testimony that nature bears to the existence, power, and wisdom of its Creator,

¹⁷Ralph Gabriel, *The Course of American Democratic Thought*, (New York, 1940), 162.

¹⁸E. L. Youmans, "Professor Huxley's Lectures," *Popular Science Monthly*, X (November, 1876), 103.

and to the veracity of his word. To this sect Professor Huxley belongs.¹⁹

Wearing the self-appointed title of "Darwin's bulldog," and regarded in religious circles as a man of unsavory repute, Huxley spoke not in the quiet obscurity that sheltered Wallace but from the eminent podium befitting his position as a high priest of science. It is not surprising, therefore, that his lectures were the core of much controversy. It would rather have been surprising had they passed unnoticed.

¹⁹Anonymous, "Three Lectures on Evolution," *Catholic World*, XXIV (February, 1877), 616.

SPEECH IN THE TOTAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM

ELWOOD MURRAY*

Probably no field of teaching has a more interesting and useful future than the field of speech education. Whether the potentialities will be realized depends upon the extent to which we are able to prepare ourselves to make changes in our programs to meet the opportunities in education in general and in the communication arts and sciences in particular. Our place in the educational picture and our place in the total school curriculum is determined by educational policy makers. In the making of policies our part is necessarily minor and our members are usually only occasionally represented. We must work closely within the directives implied by the policies made by others. Our contribution can be vastly extended as we adapt and develop our programs to enhance these policies and hence bring about a greater demand for our work.

Fortunately we have a subject which may contribute directly both to enhance the policies of our educational leaders and meet the needs of our students in the rapid changes, difficult problems, and vast demands in the world of today. We may expect to strengthen our programs to meet the following three continuing demands: first, we must, along with the rest of the curriculum, help students sustain and build that heritage of democracy, order, and freedom which has contributed to our greatness as a people; second, we have a unique opportunity and a corresponding responsibility to contribute to the personal-social adjustment, personality development, and human relations effectiveness of our students; third, we must contribute to our students' vocational and professional fitness and help them perform better in their major fields.¹ To make appropriate contribution to meeting these requirements we find that we should develop and activate work in the whole gamut of education from the mother of the

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¹See bulletins on *Speech in the Elementary School* and *Speech in the Secondary School* published by The Speech Association of America.

pre-school and the kindergarten child to the graduate student and the adult extension class.²

Perhaps our overall objective may best be described in terms of communication behavior wherein we look at the person in his whole situation. We should do all that is feasible to develop individuals who are serene and friendly, persons with infinite curiosity, stability, and character. Central in this maturity of personality is a general scientific attitude which the student becomes able to apply, not only to the behavior of others, but also to himself. These characteristics appear to be a part of that basic competency in human relations and human inter-communication whereby the student will become able to deal with a world made rather dangerous by immature persons and groups who, too frequently, operate our modern technologies. Much more of this competency also seems to be necessary if our students are to transmit their share of the heritage and contribute to the furthering of human welfare and human evolution.

The contribution we make to these large objectives will be restricted by the view we take of our subject, the extent to which we teach the functions of our subject, and our own efforts and abilities. Sometimes our problem is with our administrative superiors who do not define speech in the same broad respects; other times we are not prepared to achieve the broader and more functionally vital ends which many of our profound and more forward-looking administrators expect of our subject and us. If our chief end is so-called speech skill we will confine our understandings and methods accordingly; if our end, in addition to skill, includes personal-social effectiveness, our understanding and methodologies must be vastly expanded. If our end is to put on a play that will "bring down the house" or a debate which will "bring honors to the school" — that is laudible, perhaps; but if our aim is to teach better human inter-communication, we will need to do much more.³

If we desire to extend our usefulness and at the same time give our work its most solid academic basis in the total educational program we will either teach our subject in relation to the whole com-

²Joseph H. Smith, D. Mack Easton, and Elwood Murray, "The Integrated Speech Program," special monograph published by The Western Speech Association (1937).

³Elwood Murray, "The Evaluating and Integrating Functions of Speech," *Teachers College Journal*, XIII (January, 1942).

munication process or incorporate that process as a part of our field. At present we are teaching only a part of the basic communication processes. Those processes of reception, seeing — listening — reading, we scarcely teach at all; the assimilation, evaluation, and invention processes we teach very inadequately; we teach the organization, supporting, and verbal formulation processes too isolated from their whole social situations; we teach the vocal forms of transmission fairly well; but we fail to teach our students to check upon the reception of their messages. We specialize upon certain aspects of what are primarily the transmission process — such things as delivery in public speaking and oral interpretation, in acting and in radio performance. Radio and television fundamentally serve as media for transmission of speech. In debate and discussion we teach the elements of reasoning and a logic which are primarily Aristotelian, but we neglect the more complex psychological, semantic, and sociological aspects and the necessary two-way reception and transmission behavior of our communicators. We spend great effort in training persons in "persuasion" with too little attempt to gear this ability into a basis of sound evaluation. We are weak in, or we omit entirely, training whereby our students may avoid in themselves and deal with in others, those very subtle reactions which resist, distort, confuse, or block communication at many of these points. In the main we tend to neglect the underlying fundamentals of communication while we continue to stress the isolated and outward mechanical factors. While we must not neglect matters of mechanics and delivery, we might better deal with them from a basis of the whole communication process and whole communication situation.⁴

Effective interpersonal relations must be paralleled by effective human intercommunication; in fact, communication wherein mind meets mind is both an aspect and a function of relations, particularly interpersonal relations. Because we do not ground our work sufficiently deep in the fundamentals of human intercommunication there is confusion and uncertainty concerning the place and scope of our work in the total school program; there is confusion concerning our relations to other programs in the school. There is developing in particular a fantastic situation of confusion, overlapping, and educational inefficiency with regard to what belongs in our own field, such as pro-

⁴Elwood Murray, "Personality, Communication, and Interpersonal Relations," *Southern Speech Journal*, XIII (January, 1948).

fessional theatre, radio, and television as well as with regard to other subjects which involve the teaching of communications such as journalism, writing, and visual-audio aids. Failure to provide a sufficiently wide and unifying basis is contributing to splitting of radio, television, and motion picture production training into separate and distinct departments and programs. Into all of these programs there must be incorporated a great proportion of our traditional materials from phonetics, voice training, and speech correction; from rhetoric, public speaking, discussion, and oral interpretation. In multiplying these programs of communication all of us become less capable of doing a respectable job in our own specialties. Worst of all, our students are cheated; they graduate as narrow and inflexible practitioners and not very good ones at that. Certainly they are not the adequate citizens we have described in the foregoing part of this paper as the objective of our efforts.

Neither are the so-called "Basic Communications" courses thus far living up to their earlier and enthusiastic promises. In some cases the originators of these programs merely put together a mixture of work pertaining to reading, writing, speaking, and listening "skills." The result is frequently a multiplication of problems in the classroom for an instructor who is unprepared to meet them. In other cases there is a gesture toward a wider and more vital program. In these, the objectives include statements concerning "improvement in personality and the relations of the student" through these new courses. These objectives are not implemented and the work has never risen above what is largely a sort of streamlined English course with some greater emphasis in our direction upon "oral communication." With two or three exceptions there is no serious attempt in any comprehensive in-service training and re-orientation of the teachers which is necessary if we are to have education for genuine human intercommunication and improved interpersonal relations.⁵

Then there are the so-called "Communication Centers" in which radio, television, journalism, theatre, and sometimes speech are being "brought together" with courses in public opinion, public opinion measurement, and sociology. The functional integration in these programs seems to be only in the bringing together of the writing aspects

⁵Wilson B. Paul, Frederick W. Sorenson, and Elwood Murray, "A Functional Core for the Basic Communications Course," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXII (April, 1946), 232-244.

of communication. As yet they include neither the essential aspects of the personality development of the communicator or the cultural dynamics of the communication situation. All of this, I think, should be taught if we are to make the contribution of which our subject is capable; if we are to teach the fundamentals of human intercommunication. Furthermore, thus far, these programs in their emphasis upon mass communication seem not to have applied the available methodologies whereby the different communications will in themselves be interrelated. With an unnatural and false emphasis upon writing, these programs are set up outside of their speech bases. This is to the grave detriment of sound communication training in the future as well as to the speech profession.

There are scientific bases whereby the entire area of communication may be unified and which will enable all of this work to find its proper and efficient place in the total school curriculum. These bases are found in the organismal biologies, psychologies, and sociologies,⁶ the same bases out of which have come the philosophies of human dynamics and integration in education in general. The speech mechanism in its personality and semantic involvements is the fundamental mechanism of all language communication. It is as fundamental for listening and writing as it is for speech. This was first apparent in studies of the different aphasiae as well as in work with the deaf. All persons who wish to communicate effectively should be trained in overcoming those things which cause this delicate mechanism to block, to be confused, to distort in its reception, assimilation, or transmission of messages. This is as important as the study of grammar or delivery. Although many of our speech teachers have been in contact with these matters through their work in speech correction, perhaps few have seen their significance for the normal student as a basis for the understanding and improvement of all the human aspects of communication. Parallel with this new information concerning the nature of the communication process and behavior in individuals are the new methodologies which have evolved from group dynamics and group work;⁷ namely, the case method whereby com-

⁶See the works of John Dewey, Raymond Holder Wheeler, George H. Mead, William H. Kilpatrick, and L. Thomas Hopkins.

⁷See publication lists and bibliography for Research Center on Group Dynamics, Ann Arbor, Michigan; also for Psychodramatic Institute, 101 Park Ave., N. Y.

municating may be studied within groups: sociometry, sociodrama, and psychodrama. General semantics brings a general scientific method whereby specific communication reactions both in the human receiver and the human transmitter may be studied and improved in very definite ways.⁸ Language as a manifestation of human behavior and adjustment thus may be improved for the larger ends of human welfare. These are in reality all fundamental methodologies of communication. For the development and application of these methodologies no group of educators have a better basic preparation and hence potential responsibility. It is, in fact, highly improbable that the potentialities of this work as suggested here will ever be utilized unless a sufficient number of leading speech scientists and scholars enlist their abilities for the larger ends.

The extent to which we develop our subject as the fundamental and central medium of communication is especially important for our future relations with television. In the near future, television will become the greatest and most influential of the mass media. The field will become vastly important as a vocational outlet for our students and as an extension of the educational activities of our programs and institutions. While proper training in television has its bases in speech functioning, our contribution will not be adequate unless our work incorporates into speech training the whole psycho-communication process. Although some of this broader training may be picked up piece-meal in other departments, the results will scarcely be adequate unless presented systematically as a corpus or unified body of communication methods and philosophy.

If all of this appears to be getting beyond the bounds of what we have been doing traditionally, perhaps the development of sound programs of the teaching of communication as well as the maintenance of the integrity of our profession requires that we extend the title of our programs from "speech" to "speech and communication" or "communication." We may be certain that our friends in English will not be able to make the drastic reorientation of their subject which is required if genuine human intercommunication training is to be developed. In fact, it is the dominance of the traditional "English" point of view in most of the so-called "communication" programs which seems to be apparent in the "retrogression" of most of these

⁸See publication list and bibliography for Institute on General Semantics, Lakeville, Connecticut.

programs which is under way. In this regard we should not forget that "speech" and "communication" are multi-lingual in their scope, which can never be possible with the necessarily mono-lingual point-of-view to which "English" is confined.

The behavioral objectives we have outlined for the mature communicator are in many respects similar to the objectives which some of the leaders of so-called general education have for all students. They are particularly similar to the objectives for the newer training of elementary school teachers and to a less extent teachers of all high school and junior college subjects. Perhaps the speech-communication trainers of these teachers would take their greatest satisfaction if they could thus multiply the effectiveness of their work.

It may be said that we are making all of this very complicated, very difficult, very impractical. It may be said that all we need to communicate is plain simple English, spoken clearly and to the point. I would point out that whatever becomes important to us immediately becomes complicated. While the communicator must above all be clear, he must not over simplify; he must "tell the truth." Those things, such as our subject, which deal with human nature and human behavior are the most complicated and paradoxical of all. In these matters often the most practical starts out as the most theoretical and impractical. We know that wherever there is great skill and great art, with its seemingly effortless simplicity, there is also the most thorough and the most profound information, preparation, and practice. As others have said, our subject enables all of us to benefit from the experiences and abilities of each other in carrying human advancement forward to the coming generations. In a matter so important as this we must not skimp, we must take the long way.

THE SURVEY METHOD IN SPEECH EDUCATION

HEROLD LILLYWHITE* AND WALDO PHELPS**

A study of the literature in the field of speech education leads to the conclusion that speech educators long have been aware of the necessity of keeping abreast of newly developing and changing needs of those giving and receiving speech training. Thonssen and Fatherson in their *Bibliography of Speech Education*,¹ and Knowler in his *Speech Monographs Index of Graduate Work in Speech and Drama*,² list an impressive amount of research relating specifically to problems in the teaching of speech. The majority of these writings deal with aspects of the speech program in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges throughout the country and report such factors as the amount and type of speech being taught, the extent of the speech training of the teachers, an evaluation of the educational soundness of the program, and the degree of success in meeting specific needs of recipients. The range of dates covered by these studies indicates that there is recognition of the desirability for continuous survey and study in an attempt to keep all aspects of speech education abreast of the requirements of a growing and changing society.

While it is true that this research work has contributed greatly to the field of speech education, the published reports have been concerned almost entirely with the findings and only incidentally with the methods used in making the studies. Each person beginning a study of this type, therefore, has had to develop his own methodology and perhaps waste a great amount of time and effort while attempting to discover a workable approach to his situation. Such a condition suggests the necessity for a more extended treatment in the literature of methodology utilized in speech education research in an attempt to reduce the labor and also to enhance the value of future work.

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¹Lester Thonssen and Elizabeth Fatherson, *Bibliography of Speech Education* (New York, 1939).

²Franklin Knowler, "Index of Graduate Work in Speech and Drama," *Speech Monographs*, II-XVII (1934-1950).

Investigators in the field of rhetoric, for example, have gone far toward standardizing a research methodology to fit the specific needs of that type of study. It is evident that progress in speech education could be greatly stimulated by the application of the same kind of procedure. Not only would the resultant improved methods make it possible to carry on a more consistently continuous study of speech education problems, but in addition would help to insure the gathering of more valid and reliable data. As finally evolved, these methods could be a great aid to directors of graduate study and to graduate students in speech.

It is the good fortune of the writers to have conducted surveys in speech education. In each case it was necessary to develop methods to meet specific circumstances, but it is believed that these techniques are generally adaptable to various kinds of situations. These studies were organized attempts to analyze, interpret, and report the status of speech education in the six state teachers colleges in Minnesota,³ in the public senior high schools of California,⁴ and in the elementary and secondary schools throughout the eleven states in the Western Speech Association.⁵ All of these research projects utilized the descriptive method which, according to the classification by F. L. Whitney,⁶ may be characterized briefly as fact-finding with adequate interpretation. The seventh chapter of this book explaining in detail the descriptive method and the fourteenth chapter dealing with research in curriculum-making are strongly recommended to prospective research workers in speech education.

Included by Whitney⁷ as techniques for gathering data under the descriptive method are the questionnaire and the interview. Either of these techniques is appropriate for the investigation of many types

³Herold Lillywhite, *Speech Needs of Elementary and Secondary Teachers in Minnesota, With Special Reference to Teachers College Graduates*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, New York University (1943).

⁴Waldo Phelps, *A Survey of Speech Education in the Public Senior High Schools of California*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Southern California (1949).

⁵Herold Lillywhite, Waldo Phelps, and Granville Basye, "A Study of the Importance of Speech Proficiency in Public School Teaching as Related to the Speech Curricula of Institutions Offering Teacher-Training," *Western Speech* XIV (October, 1950), 5.

⁶F. L. Whitney, *The Elements of Research* (New York, 1946), 155.

⁷*Ibid.*, 158.

of speech education situations and the collection of many different kinds and types of data from a variety of sources. One of the most valuable of these sources of information is the teachers themselves. They know what they are called upon to do in the schools, and it may be assumed with some confidence that each teacher understands better than anyone else what has prepared him to carry on his tasks with proficiency and to meet the problems of his particular situation.⁸ Teachers at all levels may be asked to evaluate the importance of their own speech proficiency. Factors such as maintaining discipline, creating pupil interest, holding class attention, emphasizing important ideas, saving teacher time and energy, and developing successful relationships with parents and administrators are examples of items which may be explored by asking the teacher to evaluate the degree to which his own speech proficiency helps him. A second set of questions might be grouped around the heading of the importance of the speech proficiency of the teacher to the pupils under his direction. A final set of questions might request the teacher to express beliefs relative to the attention which should be paid to aspects of speech proficiency and preparation by colleges and universities before candidates are granted teaching credentials.

A second valuable source for speech education survey information is the school administrator. An individual in this position should be able to indicate what attention is paid to aspects of speech proficiency in the actual practices of hiring, rating, and promoting of the teachers under his direction and to evaluate the importance of speech proficiency throughout administrative work. The school administrator will see speech training as one part of the total educative process and will fit it into the school program accordingly.

A third valuable source of speech education survey data is the school records. They will yield such information as the extent of student enrollment in required and elective speech classes, the types of speech courses which are being taught, the units of work which are included in these courses, the kinds of extra-curricular speech activities which are carried on, and the speech training of the teachers in charge of the instruction.

⁸Jesse A. Bond, "Contributions of General Factors to Effective Teaching in Secondary Schools," *Journal of Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIV (December, 1948), 479-487.

Either the questionnaire or the interview can be utilized as the data-gathering technique for speech education information, but each technique has certain inherent limitations which should be recognized. The main source of difficulty with the questionnaire arises from a failure on the part of many individuals to respond to a request for information. Questionnaires that are not returned or are returned incompletely present difficult problems of interpretation, particularly when the results are to be expressed in per cent. Good, Barr, and Scates⁹ well point up these difficulties:

One has always to consider the question, "If all the blanks had been returned, would they have shown a significantly different picture?" This question is not a problem of simple sampling, for there may be a definite relationship between the response or lack of response and the existing conditions. Perhaps the recipient did not respond because conditions were very good, and he saw no point to the study. Or, conditions may have been so unsatisfactory that he did not care to reveal them. The research worker must consider these possibilities before drawing his conclusions. The problem is indeed baffling and lies entirely outside of any statistical technique of allowing for sampling fluctuations or unreliability. At best the interpretation is made with certain hazards.

A second source of weakness with the questionnaire as a data-gathering technique is the questionable accuracy of the completed returns. Administrators in particular are confronted continually with questionnaires to be filled out on a wide variety of subjects, and because of the heavy responsibility and the demands on their time they may not devote the necessary thought or attention to answers which they give or they will misunderstand questions or fail to interpret correctly the alternative answers which have been provided.

The questionnaire is most appropriate when the research worker is attempting to gather a somewhat limited amount of information from a large number of schools or a wide geographical area. It presents the distinct advantage of allowing the research worker to secure greater returns and thus more data in less time and with less effort and expense. For example, in the Minnesota study¹⁰ questionnaires

⁹Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglas Scates, *The Methodology of Educational Research* (New York, 1941), 333.

¹⁰Lillywhite, 67.

were sent to 810 classroom teachers and 420 administrators throughout the state. Completed forms were received from 434 teachers and 196 administrators for an average return of approximately 50 per cent, and provided the investigator with a total of 630 completed questionnaires to tabulate and interpret.

The principal limitations of the interview is in all probability fairly evident in light of the foregoing discussion. Much less actual data can be secured in a given period of time by this technique and with much greater effort and expense. In the California study,¹¹ by way of illustration, the research worker was able to secure information from a total of eighty-four high schools scattered throughout the state by working almost full time during a semester of four and one-half months duration.

The interview technique is most appropriate when the investigator is attempting to make an intensive survey of a limited area or a limited number of schools with a premium placed upon the accuracy of the data obtained. If the survey is to be confined to schools located in a metropolitan area or a county or perhaps one of the smaller states it should be feasible and worthwhile to utilize the personal interview. Because the research worker is dealing directly with the school situation and collecting first-hand data he should be able to avoid the main weaknesses of the questionnaire, and thus to obtain more valid and reliable data.

The research worker who selects either the questionnaire or the interview technique is confronted with three principal problems. He must attempt to secure as representative a sampling of the whole population as is possible; he must construct effective questionnaire or interview sheets for the recording of data; and he must achieve a maximum amount of rapport with the individual who is expected to provide the data.

Let us consider the first problem, that of obtaining a representative sample from the whole population. No mere accumulation of data can hope to eliminate the error that springs from a biased sample. An extended study of the polling techniques which compelled the *Literary Digest* to go out of business, for example, prompted George Gallup to write that the most important requirement of any sample

¹¹Phelps, 51.

is that it be as representative as possible of the entire group which it is taken.¹²

If the research worker uses the questionnaire technique, there are a limited number of things which may be done to help eliminate the possibility of obtaining a biased sample. He may deal with the problem of equal geographic distribution of the questionnaire by dividing an area the size of a state into sections, and then scattering materials throughout each section. He should include a variety of schools, large and small, rural and city, from wealthy districts and from poor districts, in his sample. He should send questionnaires to teachers of all subjects and all grades.

In spite of the fact that the research worker may go to great lengths in his attempt to secure a representative sample by means of the questionnaire technique, he never can be too positive about the results of his efforts. This, of course, is because he has not means of controlling the distribution of the returns. The interview technique, on the other hand, provides for the control of this important factor. In limited projects each school may be visited and a 100 per cent sample collected. In projects over a more extended area or including a large number of schools the research worker can prepare to secure a representative sample equalizing such factors as geographic location and distribution, size and type of school, and subjects and grades taught.

After the problem of achieving a representative sample has been handled, the research worker must construct effective questionnaires or interview sheets. In questionnaires it is wise to group a series of questions under an impartially phrased main head. It is possible, by way of illustration, to include six or seven questions under the following statement: "Indicate what attention should be paid to aspects of speech preparation and proficiency by colleges and universities before candidates are granted a teaching credential." The specific questions themselves should be impartially phrased and should be followed by a clear set of alternatives, preferably to be checked. It is important that the words used to describe the possible alternative choices cover the range of possibilities and also that the words given will have approximately the same meaning for everyone. Five possible alternatives are suggested as an appropriate number. In final form the writer should

¹²George Gallup and S. F. Rae, *The Pulse of Democracy* (New York, 1940), 54.

avoid the use of long and complicated sentences and of packing the material too tightly on the page. It is wise to give the questionnaire a "dry run" by sending it to a few people for comments and criticism before it is put in final form.

Much of this same procedure should be followed in preparation for interviewing. Most of the literature on interviewing advises that records should not be made in the presence of the interviewee but rather after the close of the interview. Many writers feel that an individual will talk more freely if he does not see his statements on paper. Kinsey, Pomeroy, and Martin in their *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male*¹³ found that recording data after the interview introduced a tremendous error into the records. They then began to record all data during the interview and found no loss of rapport when a code was used for this purpose which allowed material to be recorded as rapidly as conversation could be carried on. They report the conviction that the loss of rapport which comes when data are recorded directly has been a result of the longhand method of writing out answers while the interviewee sits in silence waiting for the next question.¹⁴

It is the suggestion of the writers that the prospective research worker construct interview sheets. The emphasis throughout this construction should be upon a strict definition of the possible alternative answers and not on the questions themselves, which should merely serve as a guide, or on the order in which the questions are to be discussed. A system of symbols can be evolved for the recording of alternative answers.

After the successful construction of the questionnaires or interview sheets the research worker should concern himself with the problem of rapport. In any study which needs to secure quantities of data from human subjects, there is no way except to win their voluntary cooperation by securing their active interest. In the questionnaire technique the principal device for achieving this rapport is the accompanying letter which is sent to each prospective respondent. This letter should not be over one page in length and should be written directly to the point. A good technique is to begin with a question, or a series of questions, which will direct the

¹³A. Kinsey, W. Pomeroy, and C. Martin, *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male* (Philadelphia, 1949), 50.

¹⁴*Loc. Cit.*

reader's attention toward the most important aspects of the general problem. The letter should state specifically what the reader is being asked to do, who is collecting the information, and what is to be done with the findings. It is a good idea to invite questions and comments and to offer to send a copy of the findings to the reader if he indicates a desire to see them.

One of the main advantages of the interview over the questionnaire is that it provides so much more opportunity for establishing of rapport. Because the research worker has the chance to talk personally with the teacher or administrator he should be able to build and increase the degree of rapport throughout the interview. It is possibly most effective to begin with factual materials, such as the number and size of the speech classes in the school, in the early stages of the interview and to work gradually into matters of opinion while the interviewer and the interviewee are becoming better acquainted. Greene¹⁵ explains that interviewing represents an exceedingly adaptable method of collecting data, with one of its most outstanding values contained in the fact that it allows the interviewer to bring up topics for discussion in such a fashion as to secure and build the confidence of the person being interviewed.

It is not intended that the methods reported here will fit all situations or that they are in any sense final. Rather it is hoped that these methods, which have been found to be more than moderately successful, will be freely used by others to improve and extend this type of study. It is specifically suggested that individuals might undertake studies in other states similar to those done in California and Minnesota and that other regional associations might stimulate studies similar to the one conducted by the Curriculum Committee of the Western Speech Association. It is further suggested that a way to promote this activity in other associations would be by the establishment of permanent curriculum committees with power and encouragement to act. Finally, it is suggested that it might be well if such a committee were formed in the Speech Association of America, with permanent status, and with instructions to stimulate, direct, and coordinate studies of this nature throughout the country.

¹⁵E. Greene, *Measurements of Human Behavior* (New York, 1941), 37.

RESULTS OF A SPEECH SURVEY IN THE DALLAS, TEXAS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

NANNIE SUE WALLACE*

During the two year period 1948 to 1950 in the Dallas, Texas public schools a screening survey of all the elementary school children in grades one through six was made to determine the number having speech defects and the type of such defect. This survey was conducted so that the exact needs of the speech therapy program could be known and plans for expansion made.

Since some 27,000 children were screened, and since few studies have investigated this large a number of subjects, the results should be of significance and value.

The survey was begun in the fall semester, 1948-49. In the fifty-five elementary schools in grades Low Three through High Five 12,126 children were checked. The survey was continued and completed during the fall semester of 1949-50. During this term 14,903 children in grades Low One through High Three were checked. When the survey was completed at end of the semester, 27,029 children in grades Low One through High Six of all the elementary schools had been screened. The people doing the surveying both years were the speech therapists employed in the Dallas school system as a part of the state's program of special education for exceptional children.

The speech defects found in the survey were classified into six types:

1. Articulation — children having speech containing the omission, distortion, or substitution of one or more consonant sounds.
2. Voice — children having speech that was habitually distinguished by unusual voice quality as huskiness, nasality, breathiness, or extremely high or low pitch. The homeroom teacher was consulted as to whether the child's voice (if defective) always sounded that way or was just affected by a cold on the day of the survey.
3. Pathological Hesitation or Stuttering — children having speech that was characterized by hesitations, blocks, and/or repetitions.

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4. Cleft Palate — children having speech affected by cleft palate, cleft lip, or both.

5. Cerebral Palsy — children having speech that was defective in some respect because of cerebral palsy.

6. Foreign Dialect — children having speech that was influenced by their knowledge and use of another language.

In some cases a child's speech would fall into two or more of the above types of defects as articulation and voice or articulation and stuttering. A special record was kept of those children with a multiple type of defect.

After classification as to type the severity of defect was noted. Three degrees were used to describe the defective speech: (1) mild, (2) moderate, and (3) severe. These degrees were based on intelligibility and allowed for some variance. Children whose speech was defective but who could be understood rather easily were described as mild defects. Children whose speech was partially intelligible were noted as moderate defects. Only those children who were extremely difficult to understand were classed as severe. For example, an articulation defect would be classified as mild if one or perhaps two sounds were defective; as moderate, if several sounds were defective; and as severe if all or nearly all consonant sounds were defective.

Of the 27,029 children, the total pupil population in grades one through six of the Dallas elementary schools, checked 3,569 or 13.20 per cent were found to have speech defects.

Although grades one through six had been screened by the end of the two-year survey, it must be kept in mind that the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade children were actually in the third, fourth, and fifth grades at the time they were surveyed. In presenting the data in this paper the findings for the third grade children who were screened in the first year of the survey will be omitted, except from the total figures which have already been stated. The findings will hereafter be given for the speech of children who were actually in the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth grades at the time surveyed.

TABLE I
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF THOSE SURVEYED
HAVING SPEECH DEFECTS

Grade	Number Surveyed	Number Having Defect	Percentage Having Defect
1	5,498	1,126	20.48
2	4,892	665	13.59
3	4,513	472	10.46
4	4,048	434	10.72
5	3,809	377	9.90
Total	22,760	3,074	13.51

Table 1 shows that of those children with speech defects the largest number were found in the first grade, 1,126 cases or 20.48 per cent. As the grade level increased there was a decrease in speech defects, except for a very slight increase in grade four.

To get a more detailed insight into the picture of speech defects, the types found must be examined.

TABLE II
NUMBER AND TYPES OF SPEECH DEFECTS
ACCORDING TO GRADES

Grade	Number Surveyed	Articu- lation	Voice	Stutter- ing	Foreign Dialect	Multiple Type
1	5,498	746	31	21	328	11
2	4,892	451	28	12	181	7
3	4,513	231	50	18	185	14
4	4,048	164	71	37	193	35
5	3,809	150	60	37	155	29
Total	22,760	1,742	240	125	1,042	96

One would have expected to find 32 cleft palate cases (these and cerebral palsy not included in the Tables) instead of 16 as based on statistics concerning the incident of cleft palate at birth. That a smaller number were found than expected may have been due to the fact that some mild cases could have been classified as articulation or voice problems since an examination of the oral structure was not included in the screening.

An explanation of the small number of cerebral palsy cases is also necessary. In the Dallas schools there are special classes for the education of cerebral palsied children, and the majority of them

are enrolled in these classes which were not included in the survey.

TABLE III
PERCENTAGE OF TYPES OF SPEECH DEFECTS
ACCORDING TO GRADES

Grade	Number Surveyed	Articulation	Voice	Stuttering	Foreign Dialect	Multiple Type
1	5,498	13.57	.56	.38	5.97	.20
2	4,892	9.22	.57	.25	3.70	.14
3	4,513	5.12	1.11	.40	4.10	.31
4	4,048	4.05	1.75	.91	4.77	.86
5	3,809	3.94	1.58	.97	4.07	.76

Table III gives the information of Table II in percentages instead of numbers.

TABLE IV
PERCENTAGE OF THOSE HAVING SPEECH DEFECTS
ACCORDING TO TYPE OF DEFECT

Type of Defect	Per Cent of Total Defects
Articulation	56.80
Voice	7.81
Stuttering	4.07
Cleft Palate52
Cerebral Palsy16
Foreign Dialect	33.99
Multiple Type	3.12

Table IV gives the percentage of those having speech defects. Over half of the defects, 56.8 per cent, were articulation. This finding is further evidence of the validity of a statement by Reid, "We may safely conclude that functional articulatory defects comprise at least 50 per cent of the total cases of defective speech in the elementary school population."¹ Foreign dialect accounted for 33.99 per cent of the speech defects while 7.81 per cent were voice and 4.07 per cent stuttering. Only .52 per cent were cleft palate and .16 per cent cerebral palsy. Of the total number of defects 3.12 per cent were multiple type.

¹Gladys Reid, "The Efficacy of Speech Re-education of Functional Articulatory Defectives in the Elementary School," *Journal of Speech Disorders*, XII (September, 1947), 301- 313.

According to these findings a speech therapist with a hundred cases could expect approximately 56 to be articulation problems, 33 or 34 to be foreign dialect, 7 or 8 voice, 4 or 5 stuttering, and possibly one each of cleft palate and cerebral palsy. The number of these last two types would be dependent on other factors which have been previously explained about cleft palate and cerebral palsy. The therapist might also expect three or four of these hundred cases to be characterized by a multiple type of defect. The largest percentage of cases would be from the first grade with a decrease in each succeeding grade, except for a slight increase in the fourth grade.

Since 56.8 per cent, or slightly more than half of the speech defects found in the survey, were articulation, the faulty sounds need to be examined. The next two tables present more detailed information as to the faulty sounds in these articulation cases.

TABLE V
RANK AND PERCENTAGE OF SOUND ERRORS
RELATIVE TO TOTAL ERRORS

Rank	Sounds	Percentage of Errors
1	s	22.44
2	r	18.17
3	e	16.42
4	l	8.11
5	ð	7.80
6	k	3.89
7	ʃ	3.21
8	g	2.94
9	v	2.62
10	f	2.53
11	tʃ	2.21
12	z	2.04
13	t	1.31
14	j	1.24
15	ʒ	1.19
16	dʒ	1.07
17	d	1.02
18	b	.56
19	p	.53
20	h	.27
21	n	.17
22	m	.14
23	ɔ	.12

In Table VI the percentage of errors for each sound by grade is figured.

TABLE VI
PERCENTAGE OF SOUND ERRORS BY GRADE

Grade	Sounds Misused														
	l	tf	v	ə	ð	k	g	s	z	l	r	tf	f		
1	3.71	3.60	19.77	6.91	4.86	4.11	18.91	2.73	1.94	5.94	14.69	2.63	3.66		
2	2.25	3.08	16.11	7.82	3.44	2.37	23.22	2.73	2.73	6.99	17.77	1.90	4.15		
3	1.84	2.04	15.10	7.35	3.47	2.65	24.49	4.69	8.16	18.57	18.57	3.27	2.24		
4	1.06	.53	12.73	12.47	3.45	1.33	24.14	.80	11.94	23.61	23.61	1.06	2.39		
5	.39	.39	9.41	6.27	1.57	.78	34.12	.78	10.59	26.27	26.27	1.96	2.74		
	d5	j	t	d	p	b	m	n	o	h	s				
1	1.31	2.06	1.54	1.54	.80	.69	.23	.17	.11	.34	.46				
2	.95	.95	.12	.12	.36	.59	.12	.3612	3.67				
3	1.22	.41	1.22	1.43612041	1.84				
4	1.06	.53	.80	.27	.80	.532727				
5	.39	2.35	1.183939				

Certain conclusions have been made on the basis of the results from the survey:

1. As the grade level increases the per cent of the children with speech defects decreases, except for a very slight increase in the fourth grade. The greatest amount of difference in the percentage of speech defects is between the first and second grades and the second and third grades. The effect of maturation on speech defects during the lower grades is indicated, but after the third school year there is a slight increase and then a more or less leveling off.

2. There is a significant difference between the percentage of articulation errors in the first and second grades and the second and third grades. From the third grade through the fifth there is a very slight decrease with each grade, but the percentage of articulation defects remains fairly constant.

3. The percentage of voice problems is about the same for grades one and two with a noticeable difference between grades two and three and grades three and four. The percentage of voice defects is greatest in grade four, followed by a small decrease in the fifth grade.

4. The percentage of children who stutter gradually increases as the grade level increases except for a decrease in the second grade. The greatest percentage of stuttering defects occurs in grades four and five.

5. The largest percentage of children with foreign dialect is found in the first grade. There is a definite decrease between grades one and two and a slight increase in grade three. In grade four the percentage of foreign dialect cases again rises slightly, followed by a decrease in the higher grade.

6. Only a very small per cent of children with a multiple type of speech defect is found in the first three grades. The largest number is in the fourth grade, and although there is a slight decrease in the next grade, the percentage remains rather constant.

7. Of the total number of speech defects 56.8 per cent are articulation; 33.99 per cent are foreign dialect; 7.81 per cent are voice; 4.07 per cent stuttering; .52 per cent cleft palate; .16 per cent cerebral palsy; and 3.12 per cent multiple type.

8. Ranking sounds according to the number of times missed in the total number of errors, irrespective of grade, *s* is the most

frequently missed, followed by *r*, *o*, *l*, *ð*, *k*, *ʃ*, *g*, *v*, *f*, *tʃ*, *z*, *t*, *j*, *ʒ*, *dʒ*, *d*, *b*, *p*, *h*, *n*, *m*, and *ɔ*, in that order.

9. Ten sounds, *s*, *r*, *o*, *l*, *ð*, *k*, *ʃ*, *g*, *v*, and *f*, are frequently misarticulated at each grade through five, though their rankings do change slightly at the different grade levels. Maturation appears to have an effect on the articulation of elementary school children to a certain extent in the lower grades, but maturation does not improve the speech sounds to any noticeable extent in the upper elementary grades nor does it affect in the same proportion all the sound errors at any grade level.

10. Most of the cases that a speech therapist would have would be articulation and, since children from Spanish-speaking homes comprise a large part of the school population in the Southwest, foreign dialect. Thus, special emphasis on the handling of these two types of speech problems should be given in college courses that are designed to train clinicians for this section of the country.

Not only are these findings of value in determining what the program for children with speech defects in the Dallas schools should be, but it is hoped that they are also of interest to others in the field of speech correction.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE ARISTOTELIAN CONCEPT OF ETHOS

EDWARD L. PROSS*

It is difficult, if not impossible, to conceive of a civilization in which every man accepted the opinions of every other member of that society. Conversely, it is even more difficult to visualize a society in which no man accepted the opinions of any other member of his social group. Fortunately, it is not necessary to envision such a civilization, for since the dawn of recorded history one can find ample evidence that men have accepted and believed the opinions of some individuals and rejected those of others. This phenomenon is so apparent that men have long speculated as to the nature of the factors that lead to this distinction. With the maturation of the ancient Greek culture the study of the nature of belief became less theoretical and more practical. Skill in the techniques of inculcating belief won rich awards for its possessors, and schools were established for the teaching of those skills.

The ablest of the Greek philosophers, Aristotle, "The Father of Rhetoric," made a three-fold division of the means of persuasion, namely: logical proof, or persuasion effected by argument; pathetic proof, or persuasion by an appeal to the emotions; and ethical proof, or belief which proceeds from the listener's estimation of the speaker's credibility.¹ Despite the fact that this analysis was entirely empirical, it has successfully withstood the tests of centuries and provides a starting point for rhetorical analysis to this day.

The varied emphasis and incomplete treatment usually accorded ethical proof in recent rhetorical writings provide interesting ground for speculation. Perhaps the explanation for this lies in the seemingly fundamental soundness of these concepts. Thus, it would seem obviously true that the audience gives credence to the speaker who has a reputation for personal honor and integrity. Another possible explanation for this neglect might reside in the premise that modern speakers no longer employ this form of proof. The ludicrousness of this elucidation is made evident by a rhetorical analysis of almost

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¹Lane Cooper, *The Rhetoric of Aristotle*, trans. (New York, 1932), 8.

any speech of Franklin D. Roosevelt.² An examination of contemporary speeches found in the magazine *Vital Speeches* or any comparable source reveals that extensive use of *ethos* is not peculiar to the late President.

A third possible explanation for the neglect of *ethos* may reside in the feeling that it is too ephemeral, too illusory, too intangible to permit accurate definition and analysis in accordance with modern objective methods. There is some justification for this point of view. In fact, it is the writer's belief that the present limited treatment of *ethos* in our textbooks and classrooms is primarily due to its scattered and often unsystematic treatment by Aristotle and his successors. Perhaps this paper, which attempts to clarify the principles of *ethos* as promulgated by Aristotle, may suggest some practical applications of this mode of proof.

Of the three classical modes of persuasion as outlined by Aristotle in the *Rhetorica*, none is more esoteric than the kind which, "depends on the personal character of the speaker." An examination of those passages in the *Rhetorica* which deal with ethical proof supports this view. In only two brief passages does Aristotle directly and positively discuss this aspect of persuasion. Other references are scattered and are open to speculation as to the proper interpretation of meaning.

In Book I Aristotle points out that: "Persuasion is achieved by the speaker's personal character when the speech is so spoken as to make us think him credible. We believe good men more fully and more readily than others. . . . This kind of persuasion . . . should be achieved by what the speaker says . . . character may almost be called the most effective means of persuasion. . . ."³ The second type of persuasion "may come through the hearers, when the speech stirs their emotions. . . . Thirdly, persuasion is effected through the speech itself when we have proved a truth or an apparent truth by means of the persuasive arguments suitable to the case in question."⁴ To

²For example, note Roosevelt's use of personal pronouns for ethical appeal. This is well demonstrated in Charlotte Piffer Schrier, "A Comparison of the Oral Style of Franklin Roosevelt in Representative Occasional and Campaign Speeches." Unpublished M.A. Thesis, State University of Iowa (1939), 84-85.

³W. Rhys Roberts, trans., *Rhetorica*, in *The Works of Aristotle*, ed. W. D. Ross (Oxford, 1924), XI, 1356a.

⁴*Ibid.*

command these three means of effective persuasion the orator must be able to reason logically, to understand human character and goodness in their various forms, and to understand the emotions.⁵ Professor Baldwin comments on this passage and states, "Aristotle is telling us that rhetoric as an art is to be approached from these three directions and in this order . . . , first, the speaker himself; secondly, the audience; and finally . . . the speech."⁶

The second and final comprehensive treatment of *ethos* is found in the opening paragraphs of Book II.⁷ Aristotle points out that in Book I he has dealt with the subject matter for enthymemes in each of the three kinds of oratory. Somewhat apologetically he admits that not only must the orator make the argument of his speech demonstrative and credible, but, "He must also make his own character look right and put his hearers . . . into the right frame of mind." An orator's character is delineated as of great moment in political oratory and only a little less so in courtroom oratory. Three things are held essential in order to inspire confidence in the orator's own character. These are: good sense, good moral character, and goodwill. Various translations differ in their interpretations of these three factors. Thus, "good sense" has been rendered as "sagacity," "practical wisdom," and "intelligence"; "good moral character" has been translated as "character" and "virtue." All the writers consulted agree on "goodwill" as a correct interpretation.⁸ The speaker who is thought to have all three of these qualities will inspire trust in his audience. To establish that one is sensible and morally good he is advised to obtain his arguments from those outlined in Book I under occasional oratory, for, as Aristotle states in his discussion of epideictic oratory, "The ways in which to make them [our auditors] trust the goodness of other people are also the ways in which to make them trust our own."⁹ This section is essentially a summary of moral nobility by definition and comparison. Since Book I deals with the materials

⁵*Ibid.*

⁶Charles Sears Baldwin, *Ancient Rhetoric and Poetic* (New York, 1924), 11.

⁷Roberts, 1377b-1378a.

⁸J. E. C. Welldon trans., *The Rhetoric of Aristotle*, 113; J. H. Freese, trans., *The Art of Rhetoric*, in the Loeb Classical Library, ed. E. Capps, et al., 171.

⁹Roberts, 1366a.

for enthymematic proof,¹⁰ it seems reasonable that Aristotle was implying the speaker could use the enthymeme to establish his intelligence and moral character.

Aristotle considered the third factor of *ethos*, goodwill, under the discussion of the emotions. He said, "The way to establish your own goodness is the same as the way to establish that of others."¹¹ Emotions are defined as "... all those feelings that so change men as to effect their judgments, and that are also attended by pain or pleasure."¹² A puzzling question now arises. Aristotle stated, "Goodwill and friendliness of disposition will form part of our discussion of the emotions. . . ." In the long discussion of emotions that follows what part or parts are related to goodwill? Some authorities and translators specifically refer the reader to the section dealing with friendship and enmity;¹³ others do not commit themselves. Is an understanding of the emotions of pity, fear, indignation, and others necessary in order to create the impression that the speaker feels kindly toward his audience? In the writer's opinion such an appreciation is necessary, but we have no way of knowing exactly how Aristotle stood on this matter.

We also face the problem of whether the enthymeme can be used in establishing *ethos* — in this instance goodwill. One of the most acute of the modern students of rhetoric has answered this question affirmatively and asserts that it is superficial to attempt to separate the enthymeme from the "non-logical" methods of persuasion. He points out that Aristotle presented what he had to say about both ethical and pathetic persuasion in the form of topics, and we are explicitly told that these topics are the sources to which we may turn for the propositions to compose our enthymemes. These premises, he concludes, may be phrased in language designed to develop in the audience a confidence in the speaker, and to establish a conclusion as being a probable truth.¹⁴

¹⁰As Aristotle put it, "We have now considered the materials to be used . . . those opinions with which our enthymemes deal, and out of which they are built. . . ." *Ibid.*, 1377b.

¹¹*Ibid.*, 1378a.

¹²*Ibid.*

¹³*Ibid.*, 1381a-1382a.

¹⁴James H. McBurney, "The Place of the Enthymeme in Rhetorical Theory," *Speech Monographs*, III (1936), 49-74.

Other scattered references to *ethos* in the *Rhetorica* may now be discussed. Aristotle considers the various types of human character in relation to their emotional and moral qualities and fortunes.¹⁵ The purpose of this delineation expressed in his own words is as follows, "People always think well of speeches adapted to and reflecting their own character: and we can now see how to compose our speeches so as to adapt both them and ourselves to our audiences." Cope interprets this passage by stating: "Certain ages and conditions of men are marked by different and peculiar characteristics. A speaker is always liable to be confronted with an audience in which one or other of these classes forms the preponderating element. In order to make a favorable impression upon them he must necessarily adapt his tone and language to the sentiments and habits of thought prevailing amongst them and the feelings and motives by which they are usually influenced. And for this purpose he must study their characters and make himself acquainted with their ordinary motives and feelings and opinions."¹⁶

Does Aristotle consider such an audience analysis valuable only to help the speaker establish the fact that he feels kindly toward his audience (goodwill), or does he suggest that through such an analysis the speaker will also demonstrate his good sense and moral character? Apparently all three factors are considered to be involved in such an analysis, for Aristotle opens this discussion by saying, "Let us consider the various types of human character in relation to the emotions and moral qualities. . . ."¹⁷ This conclusion seems justified since he had previously discussed "good sense" and "high moral character" under moral qualities and "goodwill" under emotions. It must be observed that this is the first instance in which all three of the attributes of *ethos* have been employed together. Cope has an interesting theory in regard to this point. He maintains that this passage constitutes a second kind of *ethos* — quite distinct from that in which the speaker attempts to produce a favorable impression of his intelligence, virtue, and good intentions. Cope argues that this is a sort of "conciliatory" *ethos*.¹⁸ The writer sees slight basis for this distinction in the light of the text of the *Rhetorica*.

¹⁵Roberts, 1388b-1391b.

¹⁶E. M. Cope, *Introduction to Aristotle's Rhetoric* (Cambridge, 1867), 248.

¹⁷Roberts, 1388b.

¹⁸Cope, 108-112.

Another reference to *ethos* is closely related to audience analysis. Aristotle advised the use of maxims for, "If the maxims are sound, they display the speaker as a man of sound moral character."¹⁹ This use of *ethos* appears clearly to be designed to establish the second and third of Aristotle's three divisions of *ethos*, moral character and goodwill. He points out that the use of maxims is appropriate only to elderly men and is unbecoming to young men.²⁰ It appears unlikely that old men would be obligated to establish their sagacity. On the other hand, it is repeatedly brought out that properly selected maxims "... will raise people's opinion of our character. . . ."²¹ That maxims also tend to create goodwill is shown by the comment, "People love to hear stated in general terms what they already believe in some particular connexion. . . ."²² In this discussion of maxims Aristotle makes it clear that he does consider the establishing of character quite distinct from conveying an effect of strong emotion and cites two maxims to illustrate this distinction.²³

In Book III under his discussion of political speeches another reference to maxims occurs.²⁴ In such speeches Aristotle advises against the use of enthymemes in trying to arouse the emotions or in depicting character for, "The process of demonstration can express neither moral character nor moral purpose. Maxims should be employed in the Arguments — and in the Narration too — since these do express character."²⁵ From statements that follow, it may be strongly argued that this injunction to keep *ethos* and enthymematic argument separate applies only to political oratory. Aristotle points out that is the most difficult of all types of speaking and that, unlike forensic and epideictic oratory, there are few pauses in the main argument where episodic and extraneous matter may be introduced. He concludes, therefore, "Now if you have proofs to bring forward, bring them forward, and your moral discourse as well; if you have no enthymemes, then fall back upon moral discourse: after all, it is

¹⁹Roberts, 1395b.

²⁰*Ibid.*, 1395b.

²¹*Ibid.*

²²*Ibid.*

²³*Ibid.*, 1395a.

²⁴*Ibid.*, 1418a

²⁵*Ibid.*

more fitting for a good man to display himself as an honest fellow than as a subtle reasoner."²⁶

Aristotle advises that language be appropriate to the character of the speaker and to the matter under discussion for, "This way of proving your story by displaying these signs of its genuineness expresses your personal character."²⁷ Cope considers this a third topic of *ethos*: "It is a kind of painting or ornament, but aids the proof in some slight degree by imparting to the speech an air of truthfulness and fidelity."²⁸ However, it may also be argued that this is simply one of the technics whereby the speaker demonstrates his good character or intelligence. Much the same concept is considered in Aristotle's discussion of the narration. The speaker is advised to depict moral purpose in this portion of the speech; and in fact, Aristotle went so far as to suggest that it was more important to evince good character in the narration than to establish oneself as sagacious.²⁹ This demonstration of good character was to be accomplished in a subtle manner. "Bring yourself on the stage from the first in the right character, that people may regard you in that light . . . but do not let them see what you are about."³⁰ For example, Aristotle suggested that the speaker might find it useful to establish his character by quoting the words of a third person.³¹

There are no new concepts introduced in the remaining scattered references to *ethos*. In his discussion of the epilogue Aristotle urges the speaker to make the audience well-disposed toward himself and ill-disposed toward his opponent by the "praise-blame" techniques outlined in Book I.³² There is little emphasis placed upon the speaker's personality and conduct at the time of making the speech. However, the speaker is advised to suit his voice to the content of his speech in order to appear convincing.³³

The above discussion may be briefly summarized:

²⁶*Ibid.*, 1418b.

²⁷*Ibid.*, 1408a.

²⁸Cope, 112-113, 297-303

²⁹Roberts, 1417a.

³⁰*Ibid.*, 1417b.

³¹*Ibid.*, 1418b.

³²*Ibid.*, 1419b.

³³*Ibid.*, 1408b.

1. *Ethos* is an indirect proof which consists of conveying to the audience a favorable impression of one's intelligence, moral character, and goodwill. The listener may form his estimate of the speaker's credibility from his preconceived beliefs as to the character and reputation of the speaker, from the personality and conduct of the speaker at the time of making the speech, or from special devices or forms of statements in the subject matter of the speech itself. Aristotle stressed the merits of this third method and indicated the others only by implications. Later rhetoricians usually gave more adequate consideration to the first and second methods.
2. Intelligence and moral character may be depicted by topics derived from analysis of the objects of praise and censure.
3. The creation of a feeling of goodwill requires an understanding of the emotions, and is more closely related to *pathos* than the other two elements of *ethos*.
4. Except in political speeches ethical proof may be presented in enthymematic form.
5. The speaker who adapts his speech to his audience utilizes all three aspects of *ethos*: intelligence, character, and goodwill.
6. Through the use of maxims the speaker establishes his character and goodwill.
7. In political speaking enthymemes should not be employed to establish *ethos*.
8. Language appropriate to the speaker and occasion aids in the establishing of moral character.
9. In the narration it is more important to establish high moral character than to establish oneself as sagacious.
10. The establishing of *ethos* must not be made obvious and apparent to the audience.

It is interesting to study the works of later rhetoricians in light of their interpretations of ethical proof. Cicero, Quintilian, Blair, Campbell, Whately, Adams, and modern writers such as Crocker, Sandford, Yeager, Thonssen, and others all have made definite contributions. The instructor of speech can do his students a real service by teaching the principles of ethical proof as important elements in the effective speech. Such study should begin with the *Rhetorica*.

DWIGHT L. MOODY:
MASTER OF AUDIENCE PSYCHOLOGY

ROBERT HUBER*

A young medical student was on his way home from treating a patient in the slums of London. Walking along he came to a tabernacle where religious revival services were being held. Curiosity led him to the door from where he observed an old gentleman delivering a long-winded prayer. Suddenly, and much to the young man's astonishment, a stockily-built, energetic figure moved to the front of the platform and announced, "While our brother is finishing his prayer, let us sing hymn number 107." Attracted by this unusual evangelist, the young man stayed for the sermon. So moved was he by the whole experience that it became a turning point in his life. He abandoned his plans for practicing medicine in London and became a medical missionary to the Labrador Coast. That young medical student was William T. Grenfell.

The student of public speaking and persuasion would be interested in the evangelist, in a speaker who would break through decades of tradition in order that the meeting might be conducted to produce the greatest possible results. That evangelist was Dwight L. Moody. To say that he was born in 1837 and died in 1899 reveals little about him; yet, during his life-time he was well-known throughout the United States and Great Britain. Today people may know about him through the Moody Bible Institute at Chicago, the preparatory schools of Mount Hermon for boys, and Northfield Seminary for girls in Massachusetts. Many in America have sung from his "Gospel Hymns," hymn books that were published as a result of his services. People of Great Britain have purchased seventy-million copies of his "Sacred Songs and Solos."

Others have been influenced by him more indirectly, perhaps. It was under his leadership that the "Student Volunteer Movement" was started and still continues in various denominational colleges. He was a pioneer spirit in the Young Men's Christian Association in America, and numerous associations owe much to his ability to help them financially during their struggling years. Summer Bible Conferences

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and summer religious camps and conferences received their early impetus from him.

It was, however, his unusual ability to attract large crowds to hear him speak that was the most astounding thing about Moody. At the peak of his greatest meetings he was able to draw 20,000 people daily through the week and from 35,000 to 40,000 on Sundays. He was able to make noon prayer meetings on week days attractive enough to draw six to seven thousand attendants. He seldom took up collections except to aid some religious institution; yet, at Philadelphia on January 19, 1876, in one collection he got \$100,226. Four months of meetings in one city drew audiences totaling two and a half million people, and during his career he spoke to nearly 100,000,000 persons. He was the inexplicable phenomenon of his day.

Religious revivalists have made both a deliberate and an extensive use of techniques to develop collections of individuals into psychological crowds. Among these evangelists none exceeded Dwight L. Moody in the deliberate and extensive use of such techniques. This study centers about the revivals Moody conducted during the years 1873-1877. This period was chosen because he used the techniques of crowd formation then more extensively than later and because data are available for studying the inter-relationships of the various factors accounting for the effects of the meetings. However, the study, to be complete, could not ignore the later years of the evangelist's life.

An examination of the crowd techniques alone are insufficient because of their inter-relationship with other factors. In fact, the study of Moody's revivals of 1873-1877 brings one to the conclusion that there was extensive preparation to utilize the various factors of persuasion as effectively as possible. Thus the analysis was made upon the following formula: the stimuli of Moody as a speech personality plus the stimuli of the content of the speeches plus the stimuli of the techniques in managing the crowds plus the psychological factors peculiar to the people of the time equal the results or reactions that the revivals produced. Here I shall touch briefly those factors of persuasion and concentrate upon the techniques Moody utilized in developing a psychological crowd.

The persuasive factors in Moody's personality are analyzed by the developmental method. He was born at Northfield, Massachusetts, 1837. The Puritan environment of his boyhood resulted in a conservative religious ideology most generally approved by his audi-

tors. His attainment of only a fifth grade education was readily observed in his speaking, but it resulted in a simple and colloquial diction that transformed Bible stories into nineteenth century incidents. The aggressive habits of six years as a successful salesman, first in Boston and later in Chicago, persisted in his career as a "Salesman of Salvation." His own conversion to which he referred with assurance and the religious activities which followed became the suggested goal for his converts. The integration of his own personality through religious endeavors became the suggested pattern for all. His early training in speaking was derived from selling shoes, from personal evangelism on the streets, with the Civil War soldiers at the front, and among the families in the slums in Chicago. This personal manner in speaking was merely enlarged when addressing bigger audiences. Thus Moody's delivery of the sermons in the 1873-1877 revivals was characterized as dynamic, conversational, sincere, and personal.

Moody's sermons suggested that the way to a successful, happy life was conversion followed by participation in religious activities. The "Blood of Atonement" and a literal belief in the Bible were his chief doctrines. His emphasis was not on hell-fire but on a God of love. The process of conversion was simply to believe and accept, and the results would be improved habits, greater success and happiness, and increased participation in religious activities. The overall organization of his sermons was somewhat formless, although topical and chronological arrangements were used at times. He made use of illustrations, Biblical narration, comparison and contrast, repetition, and direct discourse. His four general areas of motive appeals were relief from sorrow, love and friendship, fear of death and the the grave, and the security of belief. A logical and "reasonable" impression was created by his use of the Bible as authority, personal experiences as illustrations, the short example, and figurative analogy. His style was simple, with a predominance of one syllable words and short sentences which were often epigrammatic and highly figurative.

An analysis of Moody's audiences of 1873-1877 reveals that economic, social, and political conditions had given rise to strong cultural contradictions leading to mass insecurities, anxieties, and hostilities. A rapidly growing industrialism produced shifts in the demand for labor and brought widespread migration to the large industrial areas. Ruthless methods of acquiring wealth and power

resulted in the hostilities of growing unionism, strikes, and riots. The cultural contradictions between the miserable living conditions of the poor and the luxurious mansions of the rich brought strong reform movements. The serious recession of 1873 was followed by several years of depression. Thus the insecurity and anxiety level was high, constituting a reservoir of emotion that Moody utilized as compulsive motivation for religious activity. By contrast, the religion that Moody preached provided a haven of security.

The foregoing give some clues to Moody's speech personality, his sermons, and the audiences to whom he preached. However, it was in his use of techniques in managing crowds that he was a master. After studying the various revivals, one is impressed with the fact that Moody was a master of administration. He used almost every possible means of developing anticipatory behavior which was later polarized during the services, of producing maximum social facilitation, greater suggestibility, and greater response. It can readily be seen, upon analysis, how each device either built motor attitudes, released them, or augmented the released response as it was being carried out.

The general plan of the meetings called for Moody to hold services in large cities for a period of two to four and one-half months. From three to nine meetings were held daily.

The devices used in the preparation for the meetings were numerous. The prestige of such prominent ministers as Talmadge, Spurgeon, and Beecher was utilized on the general executive committee of ministers to plan the religious aspects of the revivals. The prestige of such prominent business men as Commodore Vanderbilt, William E. Dodge, and J. Pierpont Morgan was utilized on the executive committee for business affairs. The \$30,000 to \$140,000 necessary to carry on the revivals was raised entirely by donations. The barometer of the growth of this fund was daily publicized in the local newspapers.¹

The tabernacles were constructed to provide maximum polarization. The 6,000 to 10,000 seats were close together and standing room for 2,000 more was planned. Attitudes of submission were suggested by platforms built from 6 - 8 feet above the floor. The

¹A. P. Fitt Collection of clippings about and letters of Dwight L. Moody, Northfield, Massachusetts.

platforms were large enough for the 200 to 400 members of the choirs and to accommodate governors, judges, senators, and members of the House of Lords. The sight of Spurgeon, Beecher, Cuyler, Talmadge, Phillips Brooks, Marshall Field, John Wanamaker, and President Grant was sufficient to build a strong attitude of submission to the evangelist. Special tables for the press were provided just below the speakers stand in the front of the auditorium and complete reports of the services and the sermons appeared daily in the newspapers. Other forms of publicity were used freely — posters in stores, streetcars, and on billboards; daily advertisements in the newspapers; handbills on the streets. Free tickets of admission were printed in anticipation of permitting more people to be reached. Other people coming from great distances on special trains would otherwise have been turned away in the mad crush of the crowds seeking to attend. One railroad company sent out 50,000 circulars and ran special trains from distances up to 400 miles²

The training of great numbers of people to perform various tasks in the services constituted widespread anticipatory behavior leading to expectation of a "Great Harvest." From 300 to 1200 were trained for the choir; from 200 to 500 were trained as ushers; from 200 to 300 ministers and laymen were trained to work with the converts in inquiry rooms. Added to all these were the 100-150 policemen to handle the crowds, the people engaged in building or equipping the auditorium, those publicizing the meetings, those engaged in local prayer services for the success of the meetings, those attending the united prayer services, those hearing the preparatory sermons by the local ministers. When interpreted in terms of the families affected, we can understand the projected universality of the feelings within the urban community. It was no wonder that the crowds upon the opening day in Chicago were so huge that 16,000 or 18,000 were turned away.

When the main services began, the auditors were sitting close together or standing shoulder to shoulder. When the auditorium was filled the meetings would begin, sometimes as much as one hour earlier than scheduled. The first half hour was spent in singing hymns of a general nature. Promptly at the end of this time and while the congregation was singing, Moody and his special song

²A. P. Fitt Collection.

leader, Ira Sankey, would enter, go to the pulpit and the small reed organ, and bow their heads in silent prayer. Upon the completion of the singing of the hymn, Moody would announce the next hymn and Sankey would take over the direction of the singing from the local leader who had preceded him. The hymns would now turn to the theme of the sermon which was to follow.³ An analysis of the singing reveals much. Let it suffice here to summarize in the words of Rev. J. T. Sunderland, a Unitarian minister, thoroughly opposed to these revivals and the beliefs preached: "Though you have only gone in as an indifferent and critical spectator you are drawn into the enchanted current of song and are being borne with strange intoxication to embrace a theology which in sober thought a man would cast away with loathing."⁴

The program of the remainder of the service was quite similar to the regular services conducted today in evangelical churches. The one great difference was the method of handling those responding to the services. Moody asked for no decision of conversion in the regular services. Rather he asked all those "aroused" by the services to go to the inquiry rooms. Moody divided these people into seven classes:

1. Doubters
2. Backsliders
3. Those not stricken by their sins
4. Those broken down by a sense of sin
5. Those who say, "I haven't got strength sufficient"
6. Doubters of instantaneous conversion
7. Those afraid they "won't hold out"⁵

Each inquirer was given personal consultation with a trained inquiry room worker. A definite plan was used in order to augment the released response to the point where the inquirer would take part in religious activity. The goal in every case was to get the man participating in religious endeavors.

³From reports of the meetings in the *Brooklyn Eagle*, *Philadelphia Public Ledger*, *New York Times*, *Chicago Inter-Ocean*, and *The Boston Globe*, 1876-1877.

⁴Rev. J. T. Sunderland, *Orthodoxy and Revivalism* (New York, 1876), 111-114.

⁵From letter by Moody in the A. P. Fitt Collection.

There were prayer meetings, meetings for children, meetings for laborers, meetings for men, meetings for women, meetings for young men, meetings for drunkards, all day Christian conventions, revivals in outlying districts. Through all these one can observe a careful plan to use every possible device whereby people in masses would come to the meetings, be stimulated by them, and then proceed to strengthen the response by participation in the activities.

The foregoing is a brief glimpse of the Moody revivals of 1873-77. The results of the revivals in the form of huge crowds and widespread Christian activity was a source of wonder to the people of the time, but the permanence of the results in terms of increased church membership was disputed. However, these revivals did constitute the beginning of Moody's influence as a religious leader. The essential features became the pattern for later evangelists. Certainly, they constitute an interesting study of the student of audience psychology.

THE DIRECTOR-DUKE, GEORGE II

ANDREW H. ERSKINE*

In many books of theatre history there are references to the theatrical company known as *Die Meininger*. Among the more recent volumes only Simonson's *The Stage is Set* gives any extended treatment of it. Most writers dismiss it with a paragraph or two; and some, like Cheney's *The Theatre*, say nothing about it. Yet this company played an important part in the revolution which drastically altered stagecraft during the last half of the nineteenth century.

Although 1866 is usually given as the date marking the beginning of the Meininger company, actually one must go back to December 1831 when, in the provincial seat of the Duchy of Saxe-Meiningen, a combination theatre, opera house, and concert hall opened with a performance of *Fra Diavolo*.¹ The building and its resident company had a routine existence until 1866. Then Duke George II succeeded to the ducal throne. Although the new ruler seemed like an ordinary German princeling, he was not. One could have foretold, perhaps, his military prowess (he was an active commander in the Franco-Prussian War) and his talented — if amateur — efforts in the graphic arts (he was not the first German aristocrat to be an artistic dilettante). However, that this man would be responsible for a major contribution to dramatic art was unpredicted even after he had ruled eight years.

Realizing at the outset of his directorial career that his relatively modest financial resources limited his scope, George II decided to specialize in one particular field, the classical drama. He shunned grand opera because of its high production costs and produced only a few contemporary plays, perhaps because of the royalties. However, by 1880 he had a company which consisted of thirty-six actors and twenty-five actresses, a technical staff of about twenty-five, and an orchestra to provide incidental music.² Quite a payroll for an comparatively poor princeling! Waldstein reports that the Duke met

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¹Otto Weddigen, *Geschichte der Theatre Deutschland*, (Berlin, 1906), II, 857.

²Charles Waldstein, "The Court Theatre of Meiningen," *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*, LXXXII (April, 1891), 750.

his theatrical expenses by living frugally otherwise, by buying costumes for his players rather than clothes for himself.³

Although the restricted budget made it impossible to hire high salaried stars, the members of the company were comparatively well paid. Moreover, the Duke set up a pension plan for all actors who stayed with him more than ten years even though they later got employment elsewhere.⁴ This act of economic humanitarianism seems strangely enlightened for the nineteenth century.

George dismissed two stage managers before he found a satisfactory second-in-command, Ludwig Kronek, who had been a member of the company from 1866.⁵ At last in 1874 the Duke deemed his players ready for touring.⁶ On its first trip the company opened with little fanfare in Berlin but won immediate acclaim; and between 1874 and 1890 it made yearly tours playing not only in all the important German cities but also in Russia, Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, England, Denmark, and Sweden.⁷

As stated earlier, the repertoire consisted of classic plays. Comedy and heroic melodrama predominated. Of all playwrights Schiller was the most produced, nine of his works being given a total of 1250 road performances. To Shakespeare belongs the honor of being runner-up. Six of his plays received a total of 820 performances. These two writers then accounted for 2070 of the 2591 road performances. An analysis of the figures on Shakespearean productions is interesting. It is as follows:⁸

Play	No. of Performances
Julius Caesar	330
Winter's Tale	233
Twelfth Night	132
Merchant of Venice	94
Taming of the Shrew	21
Macbeth	10

³*Ibid.*, 750.

⁴*Ibid.*, 750.

⁵Joel Trapido, "The Meininger," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXVI (October, 1940), 380.

⁶*Ibid.*, 381.

⁷Joel Trapido, "The Meininger: an Evaluation," *Studies in Honor of Alexander M. Drummond*, (Ithaca, N. Y., 1944), 201.

⁸Max Grube, *Geschichte der Meininger*, (Stuttgart, 1926), 129.

It is interesting to note that the Meiningers played only one of Shakespeare's four "great" tragedies. Perhaps the others presented insuperable casting problems, or perhaps the Duke did not care for their available translations. (The company played only in German.) In any event even *Macbeth* does not seem to have been very popular, but *Julius Caesar* was the most frequently produced play in the entire repertoire.

In 1890 the company was disbanded after Kronek, the stage manager, became seriously ill. He died a year later. The Duke was then sixty-four; and, rather than break in a new lieutenant, he ceased producing.⁹

Many reasons have been cited for the international reputation of this provincial troupe, but these can be condensed to two: artistic unity and attention to detail. It must be acknowledged that, however desirable democracy is in government, the artistic success of this company stemmed from the most rigid dictatorship the theatre has ever known. The Duke was in a unique position; he was not only the employer of the group but its sovereign as well. Although there is no record of his having jailed an erring actor for treason, it is quite clear that he had more power than an ordinary producer.

Many examples of his strictness have been recorded: the stiff fine that was levied on the hairdresser who gave an historically inaccurate coiffure to an actress because the latter disliked the assigned authentic one;¹⁰ the swift dismissal of an actress who, presuming on her husband's high rank, declined to play a subordinate role assigned to her (an incident recounted by a number of writers); the case of the leading actor who was demoted to playing extra and bit parts for the whole season in Moscow because he was a few minutes late to a rehearsal.¹¹ By such measures strict discipline was maintained in the company.

Mere severity was not the only factor which contributed to the success of the company. The Duke designed every production down to the last minute detail, making scale drawings of such things as sword hilts, cornices, and coronets. In doing so he kept equally in mind theatrical practicality and historical accuracy. His scenery was never designed merely to be beautiful; it must enhance the action or

⁹Lee Simonson, *The Stage is Set*, (New York City, 1946), 305.

¹⁰Waldstein, 750.

¹¹Simonson, 301.

mood. He designed it to give the actors the requisite playing space and an effective background as well.

When it came to costumes and hand props the Duke was a veritable fiend for historical authenticity. He conceded nothing to the whims of the players or their desires for comfort or attractive appearance. He was convinced that if the actors became accustomed to a costume it would feel comfortable; hence he demanded and got many full-dress rehearsals.

Indeed it was probably the frequent and arduous rehearsals which were chiefly responsible for the success of the company. These might be continued even after the show had been seen and approved by audiences if the Duke or his stage manager were dissatisfied. When not playing, the members of the company rehearsed daily — except for the stipulated annual vacations — the sessions lasting from four or five p.m. until past midnight. The Duke is reported to have interrupted one session to wish the company a happy New Year and then to have rung the bell which called them back to work.¹²

Apart from the length and frequency of the rehearsals there are conflicting reports about their nature. Komisarjevsky writes that they were grim, mechanical affairs with the Duke or his stage manager, Kronek, dictating every inflection and gesture and moving the actors about on a floor chalked into numbered squares.¹³ On the other hand Simonson says that rehearsing was a cooperative and experimental business with all the members of the company being permitted to make suggestions.¹⁴

In designing and producing a show the Duke devoted much time and attention to mob and battle scenes. He tolerated no poorly outfitted and awkwardly moving supers. Each extra was carefully costumed and thoroughly drilled in his part. The "mobs" were divided into squads, each of which was under the command of a regular member of the company who was responsible for the activity of the group. Whenever it was possible the extras were soldiers from the Duke's regiments and this semi-military discipline came naturally to them. Lest one think that this rigid organization resulted in a mechanical effect, it should be pointed out that the Duke took measures to insure

¹²*Ibid.*, 300.

¹³Theodore Komisarjevsky, *Myself and the Theatre*, (New York City, 1930), 59.

¹⁴Simonson, 301.

seeming spontaneity. For example, when the roar or mutter of the mob was needed, each man was instructed to make some unique utterance different in sound and pitch from all others being produced at the moment.¹⁵ When it was necessary, the Duke did not hesitate to write in a specific, coherent line for each member of the mob. Similar steps were taken to insure individuality of movement.

Two other general principles were observed in mob scenes. The first was that, except when representing military formations, the extras filtered on stage from as many entrances as possible. The other principle was that no effort was made to get every extra on stage to the point where he could be seen by every member of the audience. Trailing off into the wings, the mob thus seemed larger than it actually was.

Now then, what was achieved by the principles and practices of the Duke? Most writers, even those who take a dim view of the Meininger, say that the company's ensemble playing was better than had ever been seen before. An anonymous critic in the *Edinburgh Magazine* wrote high praise of the Duke's direction of mob scenes and admitted that subordinate roles were better played by the Meininger than by English companies, even those of Irving. However, the same writer felt that the accentuation and perfection of the bit parts distracted the audiences' attention from the important roles which he felt were no more than adequately portrayed. He cites the oration scene in *Julius Caesar* as a case in point.¹⁶ However, Waldstein's comment about the same episode clearly implies that the conduct of the mob raised the scene from static declamation to vivid drama.¹⁷

By those writers who believe in theatrical realism Duke George is praised for the authenticity, elaborateness, and novelty of his stage pictures. Simonson more particularly attributes to him the use of varied stage levels which relieve monotony and make possible the use of the vertical plane to achieve dramatic domination.¹⁸ And, according to Komisarjevsky, the Duke was also responsible for the first semicircular skydrop which enhances perspective.¹⁹ Although An-

¹⁵Waldstein, 753.

¹⁶Anon., "The Meininger Company and the London Stage," *Appleton's Journal*, XXVI (August, 1881), 249.

¹⁷Waldstein, 745.

¹⁸Simonson, 289.

¹⁹Komisarjevsky, 63.

toine found much in the Meiningen productions to delight his realistic soul, he took exception to the German's use of platforms.²⁰ A similar criticism was written by the anonymous critic for the *Edinburgh Magazine* who believed that the elaborateness of the Duke's sets was distracting.²¹ To refute this accusation Waldstein countered that simplicity out of place stemmed from meanness or vulgarity.²²

Although everyone thought the historical costumes a fine innovation, Trapido, a middle of the road critic, records the fact that when there was no historical information available and creative imagination was relied on, the costumes of the Meninger were almost always in shocking taste.²³ This same critic also states that the company achieved most of its lighting effects from a varied use of intensities rather than from a variety of color.²⁴ However, it should be noted that to tint gaslight was difficult, often unsafe, and that electric light, more easily colored, was at the time still in the experimental stage of development.

By way of summary then, it might be said that the company's productions fell short of perfection through the lack of truly great actors, a paucity of imagination, and, perhaps, an overaccentuation of details. On the other hand, the Duke instituted ensemble rather than virtuoso acting, banished from his theatre slipshod productions, and introduced certain innovations in stagecraft. For these contributions to dramatic art George II, Duke of Saxe-Meiningen, deserves the thanks of all lovers of the theatre on both sides of the footlights regardless of the production style they prefer to see or practice.

²⁰Simonson, 289.

²¹Anon., 249.

²²Waldstein, 757.

²³Trapido, "The Meininger: an Evaluation," 202.

²⁴*Ibid.*, 203.

DISCUSSION BREAKDOWN

CHARLEY A. LEISTNER*

Since admitted to the speech curriculum some two decades ago, discussion has been the center of a continuing controversy of claim and counter-claim. It has been advanced by some as the righteous successor to debate, by others as an asinine excuse for extra circumlocution. Definition, aim, method, and phraseology differ with almost every writer and teacher. Some consider it antithetical to debate; others find it complementary. Some regard it as a sort of omniscient oral cure-all; others judge it an unproductive waste of time. Some maintain their position vehemently; others vacillate among several points of view. Still others, unable to arrive at any evaluation, assume a convenient air of indifference to the whole dispute.

While academicians strive to assign discussion its proper place in the educational scheme of things, the public continues to use it on the slightest provocation. Every day decisions are reached, policies are determined, information and ideas are exchanged on all levels of society. In schools and churches; fraternal, business, and civic groups; city, state, national, and even world government solutions are entrusted to various discussion procedures. It is further utilized as an instructional device through radio panels, adult education plans, local civic and cultural club programs, and expert lecture forums. Such instruction at the "grass roots" has stimulated a wide range of interest in and understanding of social, political, and intellectual relationships on the part of the average citizen. This public discussion has been heralded as "the cornerstone of democracy" since it is "... largely through the meeting of minds, the pooling of information, and the interchange of ideas which come from free public discussion that people learn to live together in the democratic way of life."¹

Disturbed by indiscriminate application of this versatile public discussion, some scholars impose arbitrary limitations on discussion's proper function. Such intellectual considerations fail to dampen the enthusiasm of the layman for asserting himself vocally in group endeavor. The adaptable freewheeling nature of public discussion con-

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¹Evelyn Konigsberg *et al.*, "Teaching Public Discussion During the War," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXIX (February, 1943), 13.

tributes to numerous breakdowns. The very lack of restraint on method, use, and purpose which makes the freer public discussion practical for the common citizen also makes regular disruptions of the process a reasonable consequence.

Just a superficial glance at United Nations' committee efforts, the labor arbitration record, the failure of many discussion governed civic projects, the educational use and misuse of discussion, and the experience of the business conference offers a myriad of occasions where the discussion process breaks down. Even in the cloistered atmosphere of the college classroom with the controlling element of the instructor's manipulation, the process breaks down short of its ultimate goal. Recurring breakdowns in group efforts have caused educators in the field of speech as well as outside it to despair of discussion as a problem solving, conflict resolving, or learning device. They see in such numerous failures an ineffectual process that must be refined, altered, and limited still further. Zealous missionaries of discussion's magical powers avoid the issue by insisting that this is not their beloved idealistic cooperation but some vulgar, mongrel method for which they are not responsible. Steadfast opponents often indulge in a satisfied, "I told you so." Even the restrained teachers seem to feel embarrassed by these breakdowns and apologize self-consciously for discussion's weaknesses.

Each of these judgments is based on the categorical assumption that the breakdown of a discussion is proof *per se* of failure of that discussion group. Such need not be the case. The assumption that breakdown and failure are synonymous must be tested against the peculiar situation of each breakdown. Often discussions which break down cannot be convicted of failure.

In examining the significance of discussion breakdown, discussion will be viewed in its general sense as it affects or is used by ordinary citizens. Such adaptable public discussion is used chiefly to seek a solution to a specific problem, determine policy or procedure, resolve some difference of opinion or internal conflict, and exchange information and ideas on topics at all levels of importance. Advocacy or persuasion cannot be excluded completely from a normal public discussion, but discussion must predominate.

While examining discussion's breakdowns its many successes should not be forgotten. The wide acceptance and continuing significance of public discussion as a device for individual democratic

participation testify to its usefulness. This paper purports to look beyond those achievements and to shed some light on the actual effect of breakdown.

When the process disintegrates, when it breaks down, can we assume it has failed as a process? Consider a series of community discussions to solve the local problem of juvenile delinquency. The group members are intelligent, experienced in group activity, and honestly searching for the best solution. Their careful analysis of the problem reveals several possible solutions which are considered reflectively. Several members settle on a more ambitious law enforcement system aimed at the teen-age level. They offer strong arguments in favor of the solution of strict regulation. The others of the group prefer expansion of the community recreation program. After an hour of progressively heated discussion, each group is more firmly convinced that its solution is superior. Here is a basic disagreement, a "fundamental cleavage." The discussion breaks down, it does not fail; it simply finishes its job. Further consideration of the solution depends on public speaking and debate. Public discussion often performs this limited function. A complex problem is subjected to cooperative investigation until compromise is no longer possible. The resulting discussion breakdown marks a boundary rather than a failure. Eventually, advocates of the several solutions carry the controversy to the final decision.

Arbitration in labor disputes has become the accepted method of resolving labor-management conflicts. One discussion seldom accomplishes the whole task. In fact, negotiations often run into weeks or months. During this time the discussions may be completely disrupted several times only to be renewed after a cooling off period. Each breakdown seems like the end of arbitration, a failure of the discussion process. The conflict is resolved bit by bit, each side giving way slowly as understanding and compromise of the two positions are achieved.

Discussion sometimes has a very different effect in resolving conflict. It seems to drive disputants further apart rather than bring them together. Pressure mounts until the whole procedure blows up. Surely discussion has failed here, not only failed to resolve conflict but seemingly contributed to it. For instance, a civic discussion group seeking a compromise policy toward gambling might have excellent interest and a real desire for compromise. As the discussion

proceeds, the rift between the conflicting points of view seems to grow rather than to lessen. The breakdown which results would probably be blamed on discussion's weakness.

An investigation might reveal that two members had very liberal attitudes toward gambling and saw in it no inherent evil. They had no moral objection to gambling beyond its corrupting influence on local politics. One other member might be a minister and another a regular church member. They could compromise their standards of value only so far. They might have desired a real unanimity and been prepared to countenance a situation contrary to their personal beliefs. Their concessions seemed slight to the rest of the board and the discussion broke down. Discussion strives for understanding to insure against breakdown. Unfortunately, understanding does not necessarily assure agreement. This is especially true when varying standards of value, scope of experience, and religious or educational background combat agreement.

Discussion as a learning device does not break down as often as do problem solving or conflict resolving efforts. Instructional group action seldom suffers active disruption. It is more often plagued by a lack of energy than by an excess. Repressed participation is just as conducive to breakdown as overzealous advocacy. For instance, the program committee of a ladies' aid society schedules an informal discussion to investigate the communist question as a foundation for a proposed discussion program. Each member depends on the others to contribute sound information based on genuine research. After several false starts the discussion breaks down. This session fails to produce anything, but it proves to the group that hard work is essential. The next meeting is extremely productive because everyone prepares.

Many club sponsored discussions of current social problems are unable to suggest and agree on a remedy. Breakdown occurs before the full cycle of discussion is completed. Each participant contributes his own knowledge and peculiar attitude on a subject such as the racial question. Diversified environments are revealed; experiences are shared and related. Deeper insight and often increased tolerance result from such discussions, although they seldom reach accord or even consensus.

Discussions do break down short of their ultimate goals, but this does not mean they have failed. Even if they do not fit any of the

examples considered thus far, subsidiary or minor companion effects mark many discussions worthwhile, if not successful. The participants have had a real opportunity to express their views on various subjects and have them tested by the response of others. They have been stimulated to think reflectively and to learn more about current problems. Tolerance for the opinion of others should result. Often the breakdown of a community discussion proves to be the end of the formal discussion only. The controversy stimulated by the formal program is carried beyond the unsuccessful meeting by the participants and the audience. Awareness of the problem may soon spread to the whole town through a series of independent, spontaneous, informal discussions which are saved from the stature of "bull sessions" by a genuine, shared concern for meeting the challenge of the disrupted formal effort.

Examples of problem solving, conflict resolving, and instructional discussions have been considered as they may normally break down. None of the foregoing examples seem strained. In fact, they seem representative of a large number of public discussion situations. Although conducted under favorable conditions and observing accepted rules for procedure and attitude, the discussions do break down. But the breakdowns should not be judged failures of the discussion process. Instead the breakdowns indicate that discussion has completed its effective effort and should give way to advocacy, or has fulfilled its task of studying conflict and clarifying the opposing positions only to find compromise fundamentally impossible, or has postponed final action after laying the groundwork for later success, or has realized enough subsidiary advantages to compensate for failure to reach the ultimate goal of the discussion.

While in the examples offered discussion procedure and attitude have been prerequisite, many discussions are not so blessed. Misuse of discussion bounds and breakdown often follows that misuse. Numerous sources of breakdown inherent in the discussion and its participants impede easy attainment of success. A study by the author analyzed the causes of discussion breakdown as limitations of the discussion process, difficulty of attaining reflective thinking, fallacious reasoning, language problems, and inability to resolve conflict.² This analysis confirms the allegation that discussion breaks

²Charley A. Leistner, "An Analysis of the Causes of Breakdown in Discussion." Unpublished Master's thesis, Baylor University, Waco, Texas, 1950.

down because of the difficulty of achieving ideal discussion conditions.

Too often people exploit discussion's difficult methodology to turn the group effort to personal advantage. For instance, does Russia seek to resolve her growing conflict with the rest of the world? Does she approach the conference table in United Nations' committees or at various other attempted peace conferences with any apparent desire for compromise? Does she pervert those occasions to sow disunity among her opponents and funnel the Kremlin line to all who might hear? Discussion is abused in the United States also. John L. Lewis hardly seems to strive for a productive discussion situation. In fact, he seems to add fuel to the conflict purposely, strengthening his position through the added tension. Sponsored discussions often present a prejudiced investigation of a question, finding only what supports a favorable point of view. A labor sponsored panel discussion is not likely to extol management. A Republican sponsored discussion is not likely to decide that Harry Truman should win the 1952 election. Simply tagging a meeting "discussion," "conference," or "arbitration" does not assure cooperative or unbiased effort.

Critics of discussion find such misuses reprehensible, but are such abuses anomalous? Other forms of oral controversy seldom escape similar exploitation. A good political speech or a comprehensive Congressional debate is at least as rare as a good discussion. Critics seem unwilling to excuse discussion's misuses as easily as perversion of public speaking or debate. Perhaps they envision the perfect accomplishment of the ideal discussion despite its position in practical, everyday oral controversy.

The imposing array of discussion anomalies should not discourage discussion participation. Many of the supposed shortcomings or failures result from misconception, misapplication, lack of understanding, and even intentional perversion of discussion. Breakdowns directly traceable to faulty use of the process cannot be condemned as failures of the process. A reasonable number of failures are to be expected in any system of oral conflict. Few benefits are immediately realized from such abbreviated discussions. However, later discussions prompted by the still unsolved problem succeed because a poor discussion leader has been replaced, an antagonistic advocacy has been modified, a source of misunderstanding has been clearly

defined, or some other combination of breakdown causes has been neutralized.

Five situations where breakdown does not mean failure are recommended for consideration on the basis of this paper.

1. Problem solving discussion completes its productive activity by discovering the main points of contention. When compromise on solutions is no longer possible, discussion must give way to advocacy.
2. Conflict resolving discussion fulfills its task of studying conflict and clarifying the opposing positions only to find compromise fundamentally impossible. Unfortunately, understanding does not assure agreement.
3. Discussion postpones final action after laying the groundwork for later success.
4. Discussion affords enough incidental advantages to compensate for failure to reach the ultimate goal of the process.
5. Discussion also breaks down when causes for breakdown are active. Misconception, misapplication, or calculated misuse of the process is responsible for breakdown, not the process itself. Except for minor companion benefits, breakdown means failure. However, renewed discussion often succeeds after the combination of breakdown causes have been neutralized.

This paper does not offer a vindication of discussion, for the many successes of discussion make such vindication superfluous. Neither does it contend that discussion breakdowns are never failures for there is an element of failure even in the examples considered. An informal and widely used process naturally fails upon occasion. But this paper does submit that discussion be viewed more objectively in its practical, workaday setting, especially by academic critics. While standards of classroom achievement need not be lowered, the standards of judgment in practice could be more realistically viewed.

Discussion should be considered neither a magical process nor a waste of time, but an increasingly important and popular device for the participation of the individual in his own government, social adjustments, and information gathering. It is natural that discussion should foment disagreements, claims, and counter-claims among its champions and opponents for as Harold Lasswell has pointed out, "... in no compartment of culture is the ferment of experience more

intense than in the field of discussion. . . . Ours is a time of testing and invention."³ But the uncertainty, inefficiency, and determined, diverse advocacy which accompany a period of experimentation should not be allowed to cloud the evaluation of discussion's worth. Less insistence on a single method or aim of discussion and more willingness to adjust each personal concept to absorb worthy new ideas will insure maximum efficiency of discussion as a primary tool of individual democratic action.

³Harold D. Lasswell, "Clarifier of Public Discussion," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXIV (December, 1948), 451.

THE RADIO SURVEY COURSE

EDGAR G. WILL, JR.*

I

Survey courses in the revised college curriculum play a larger and larger role in the academic life of students today; yet the number of students taking them is still small in comparison with the total students enrolled for higher education.

Increasingly educators are improving the curricular organization by adding new types of study—courses which cut across subject-matter lines and offer combinations of fields to enrich the program and meet the requirements of students preparing to face a changing civilization. As organized by the Progressive Education Association's eight year plan, these programs of study might include such divisions as:

- (a) The fine arts and music
- (b) Literature and language
- (c) The social studies
- (d) The sciences and mathematics¹

These are courses which attempt to survey a broad field of knowledge in an effort to orient the student's thinking in his formative years and at the same time integrate facts and figures so as to give unity and clarification to the complexities of contemporary life.

Survey courses on the college level are not new—Columbia University offered its first one in 1919 with a two-year sequence of study.² As far as can be determined this was the first effort at organizing subject matter for a general, rather than a specialized, approach.

Since that time other colleges and universities have considered the idea, and many have incorporated the survey-type course in the

*Coordinator of Radio and Assistant Professor of Speech, University of Hawaii.

¹J. W. Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices*, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1936), 26.

²W. W. Charters, "General Survey Courses," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIII (January, 1942), 2.

curricula, usually placing it for study during the first two years of work.

There are many problems inherent in the teaching of a survey class. Dean Curtis says: "The practical difficulty lies in getting teachers of sufficiently generalized competence in a world of educational specialization."³

It is this very point which makes teaching the survey course one of the most difficult tasks the curriculum offers. Many administrators are reversing the normal procedures of course assignments, putting older, more mature teachers in the survey area, at the same time permitting those younger men and women fresh from specialization to teach courses which have so recently been occupying their attention. The organization and presentation of ideas covering an entire field of knowledge is not easy . . . it is the result of years of fruitful study and practical teaching.

The content of such survey courses, especially in the field of radio broadcasting and telecasting, presents a number of problems to the thinking organizer: How much time may be allotted to various subject matters? How can over-complexity in freshman courses be avoided? What is the place of subject matter in this scheme of teaching?

The aims of the course must be clearly defined before the teaching begins. A. M. Buchan in his article "Surveying The Surveys" suggests that these courses should try to teach something broad enough to give the student general understanding and lay the foundations for later development and appreciation.⁴ Many universities offer "exploratory" courses designed to acquaint the student with various areas of knowledge. To interested students the course should offer a rough concept of the industry or field or area, with its values, traditions, and standards. It should awaken the student's interest for further investigations.

II

In the field of radio broadcasting as a teaching area survey classes as such (or those classes teaching some phase of radio history, appreciation, and/or sociology) are taught by at least 138 colleges and

³*Ibid.*, 4.

⁴A. M. Buchan, "Surveying the Survey," *College English*, IV (December, 1942), 181.

universities out of the 420 offering radio courses as listed by the *Directory of Radio and Television Courses in Colleges and Universities, 1950-51 Edition*. There has been an increase of over 40% in the total of 65 institutions granting degrees in radio which seems especially notable because it implies sound curriculum standards for radio and television training in growing numbers of universities.

These schools offer, variously, professional training, liberal arts approaches, strict appreciation courses, and the like. Radio, occupying as it does such a vital portion of the average American's time, also becomes something about which he feels he should know more. The expanding industry (now including television), although discouraging young hopefuls from rushing to metropolitan centers to join the networks, does inevitably offer more chance for employment. These two factors have combined to apply pressure on colleges and universities throughout the United States to offer one or more courses designed to acquaint the student with radio and television broadcasting.

Many institutions have adopted the "introductory" radio course which attempts to give its students actual bits of experience in various radio activities. The Federal Security Agency's Directory quoted above lists 284 institutions offering workshops in this field. Other schools attempt to survey the field as a whole, developing in their students an understanding of the medium and an appreciation of radio's place in present-day living. This approach, often known as "general orientation" instruction, is interpreted to mean the intent on the part of schools to aid the student in understanding the nature of the radio industry, together with its cultural and social effects upon society.⁵

As mentioned previously, it is urgently necessary that the aims of the survey class be carefully understood by the instructor. General planning by departmental faculties should be done, and the survey class outline thoroughly understood by the entire department in order to coordinate class organization and content. The purpose and aims of a survey class in radio (and television) should specifically include:

⁵R. S. Goyer, "An Analysis of the Nature of the Basic Course in Radio Broadcasting (Non-Engineering) in American Colleges and Universities," (Unpublished master's thesis in the Miami University Library, Oxford, Ohio, 1950), 4.

- (a) Orientation of the student in radio history and development.
- (b) Understanding radio as a business and industry.
- (c) Understanding radio as a social and communicative medium.
- (d) Development of critical attitudes of program discrimination in radio listening.

The course as thus arranged is not a skills course, but rather one to teach the context of radio broadcasting: the backgrounds, the cultural pattern in which communication occurs, and the role of the listener. Much that in the first course is of a theoretical nature will be linked with practical broadcasting situations in later courses. Under the given purposes above the following material might be included in a radio survey course:

I. ORIENTATION OF THE STUDENT IN RADIO HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT.

- A. History of radio developments both foreign and domestic.
 - 1. Origins
 - 2. Growth
 - 3. Organization
- B. World systems of radio broadcasting.
 - 1. State-owned system
 - 2. British system
 - 3. United States system of private enterprise
 - 4. Composite systems

II. UNDERSTANDING RADIO AS A BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY.

- A. National and international allocations
- B. Broadcasting station organization.
 - 1. The local independent station
 - 2. The network affiliate
 - 3. Network organization
- C. Controls of broadcasting.
 - 1. Various agencies: governmental and otherwise
 - 2. Radio laws and codes
- D. Organizations participating in radio broadcasting.
 - 1. Business agencies
 - 2. Agencies involving talent
 - 3. Agencies involving copyright and performance

III. UNDERSTANDING RADIO AS A SOCIAL AND COMMUNICATIVE MEDIUM.

- A. The audience.
 - 1. Measurement

- 2. Stratification
- 3. Gullibility
- B. Radio's influence on culture.
- C. Radio as a propaganda device.
- D. Psychology of advertising and listening.
- IV. *DEVELOPMENT OF CRITICAL ATTITUDES AND PROGRAM DISCRIMINATION IN RADIO LISTENING.*
 - A. Program planning and production.
 - B. Program types and analysis.
 - C. Radio in education; in religion; other vocations.
 - 1. Radio workshops
 - 2. Radio councils
 - D. Standards and criticisms.
 - E. Radio engineering for the layman.
 - 1. Equipment
 - 2. Recordings

III

Even though the general purposes of the course have been outlined, the content decided upon, and a staff chosen, an important feature of the success of teaching this type of course lies in the approach or method. Many teachers lecture entirely. Others have lectures by outside guests each class period. Still others use various types of "props" which give life to such a class. Certainly the teaching material of the course should include: (1) lecture material and discussion over difficult information; (2) full use of audio-visual aids such as actual broadcasts, transcriptions, and sound films where available; and (3) guest speakers on specialized subjects when available.

Any department teaching radio should collect as large a selection of transcriptions and tape recordings as possible showing a complete range of examples in programming and production techniques. It is not always possible to bring programs into the classroom directly when broadcast because of time difficulties, and therefore transcriptions will prove invaluable. The importance of audio-visual aids has too long been neglected by the college instructor who feels they are adequate only for lower education. Film strips are only now coming into their own. Sound movies, maps of all kinds, and many other visual materials will aid rapid assimilation of difficult ideas by students of all ages and classes.

Trips to local broadcasting outlets should be arranged in order that students may observe that which they are studying in class. The smoothness with which all of these aids are integrated into learning will to a large degree decide the success or failure of any particular course of study. Library facilities should subscribe to those trade publications relating to broadcasting, and these should be available to all students. Radio broadcasting is a constantly changing field, demanding of any teacher constant searching for the latest material relating to the subject.

IV

Many radio educators are preparing to teach techniques of television in either the radio or drama divisions of speech departments. Often television material is being included in the radio orientation course although some universities such as Miami University, Oxford, and Ohio are preparing to offer individual courses for TV orientation.

It should be the purpose of such beginning courses "to introduce the student to the medium of television, and through a survey of the various aspects of commercial television, to orient him within the area in a broad understanding of the medium's social, commercial, and technical implications."⁶

⁶Excerpt from the "Report to Curriculum Committee on Organization of a Television Orientation Course" submitted at Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, 1951, by E. G. Wills, Jr., and available on request from the author.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF SPEAKING: By Wilbur E. Gilman, Bower Aly, Loren D. Reid. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951; pp x + 608; \$4.00.

The Fundamentals of Speaking is a book evidently designed for a full year's study in what is variously called the fundamentals course, the basic course and the beginning course. Like several other new books in the field it contains textual material dealing broadly with the various aspects of public speaking and speech training: speech composition and organization, voice training and other aspects of presentation, platform speaking, listening, discussion, parliamentary procedure, and radio and television speaking. With respect to the breadth of its coverage, this book differs sharply from a current preference in many quarters for a relatively brief treatment covering more limited aspects of speech training.

In emphasizing organization, analysis and composition, however, this book conforms to what the reviewer believes to be a substantial current trend away from emphasis on voice training for the beginning course in speaking.

The Fundamentals of Speaking is both thorough and effectively concise. Throughout, precept is in almost every case well supported by wisely selected examples, and numerous pictorial illustrations add greatly to the attractiveness of the book. The authors have, in my opinion, steered a sensible and safe course between the undesirable extreme of oversimplicity and talking down to the student on the one hand, and indulging in abstract psychological terminology on the other hand.

The reviewer's only quarrel with the book is based on his own personal preference for a simpler and less overlapping organization of material. Although the division of the book under the headings: Introduction, The Speech, The Speaker, The Purpose, The Subject, The Audience, and The Occasion is neat and superficially logical, it seems to me that in fact this is not the most workable organization of textual material. For example, under this system of division speech composition is studied in four separate sections of the book, and the same pertains to other aspects of speech preparation and presentation.

PAUL L. SOPER

University of Tennessee

DISCUSSION AND DEBATE: By Eugene C. Chenoweth. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown and Company, 1951; pp. vi + 385; \$3.00.

The purpose of this book is not to add new theories to the field of discussion and debate, but rather to achieve "the brevity, clarity, and simplicity desired in a functional text." The book presents a comprehensive survey of argumentation and problem solving together with a unit on the management of forensic

tournaments and conferences that will prove helpful to the untutored. The style of the book, however, is didactic and lacking in sparkle. The discussions presented lack the support from fields of philosophy, psychology, economics, and literature that certain other related texts have. In addition, some of the concepts of the book are perhaps a bit outmoded. Discussions of "the hand supine, palm up," and "the hand adverse, palm vertical-outward" are perhaps not helpful and could be supplanted by more worthwhile formulations. Since the book aims at brevity, many worthwhile discussions of new material such as group dynamics and general semantics are omitted.

As a text in discussion and debate this book provides an adequate survey of the field for a semester course.

OTIS M. WALTER

University of Houston

THE TELEVISION PROGRAMS By Edward Stasheff and Ruby Bretz. New York; A. R. Wyn and Company, 1951; pp. v. + 355; \$4.98.

Almost anything connected with television is appealing to publishers today. The temptation to rush watery manuscripts to press has been understandable, not only in view of the market, but in view of the fluid state of television itself. *The Television Program*, however, is a welcome relief from this trend. The authors have worked in TV long enough to have more than a startled glimpse at the medium and they have taken time to produce a book which is sufficiently thorough to serve as a text in many college courses. Rudy Bretz entered TV as a cameraman in 1939, was a writer and director at CBS-TV, and was later program manager of WPIX in New York. Edward Stasheff has been connected with CBS-TV and WPIX. Both have taught at various schools.

The book claims to be a "complete, practical guide to television writing, directing, and producing for all those who are interested in this new medium." The writers do not presuppose any previous knowledge of TV on the part of the reader and much of the material produced is, therefore, elementary. However, the authors go beyond this point into areas of discussion and explanation which allow them to select from their years of experience many items which will be useful to readers with considerable experience in TV.

An explanation of television writing includes studies of regulatory codes and general continuity, a rather weak chapter on "Writing the Semi-Scripted Show" and a more confident section on the "Writing of the Fully-Scripted Show." The final section dealing with producing and directing TV programs is particularly good.

Throughout the book the authors deal with vocational aspects of television but do not exclude artistic considerations. They do not simply report current techniques but undertake thoughtful analyses of trends. They also attempt to prepare readers for situations in Dayton and Dallas, not just N. Y. and L. A.

The appendices contain some of the best material for intensive study, including marked scripts and instructions for building the ingenious "Bretzbox." For anyone who hasn't yet devised such a portable view-finder for rehearsing TV shows without using actual cameras, these two pages are worth the price of the book.

The Television Program will not answer everything that a TV novice can ask, but it will dispose of enough questions that the remaining ones will be much less naive.

JOHN W. BACHMAN

Baylor University

THE ROYALTY OF THE PULPIT: By Edgar DeWitt Jones. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951; pp. xxx + 447; \$5.00.

"The Lyman Beecher Lectures on Preaching at Yale University have had to wait a long time for any adequate interpretation and evaluation as a whole. But this volume, *The Royalty of the Pulpit*, by Dr. Edgar DeWitt Jones, was well worth waiting for." These words, expressed by Dr. Halford E. Luccock of Yale, in the Foreword of the book, will find ready agreement in the minds of those who have known and loved the Yale series, and now become acquainted with Dr. Jones' monumental work.

The author brought to his task a long life of study of the Yale Lectures and of the men who delivered them. Twenty-seven of the speakers he had known personally. All of the lectures he had read and re-read for years, long before the invitation to write this book was received. Dr. Jones brought to his task not only a great love for the material with which he was working, but also the mind of a research scholar. His voluminous reading and careful recording of each appropriate bit of information is apparent throughout the book. Still another of his assets is his style of writing. His writing is in the popular vein—easily understood by the common man. Dr. Jones was indeed *the* man to write a comprehensive volume on the Yale Lectures.

The Royalty of the Pulpit is primarily a background treatment of seventy of the Yale lecturers. In addition Dr. Jones gives some indication of the gist of each series of lectures with an evaluation of each series as a whole. The evaluations are for the most part favorable to the speakers, yet Dr. Jones had the courage to criticize when criticism was deserved. Perhaps the most interesting single chapter is the last—"After Eighty Years—A Judgment." The book is just the supplement that we of modern times need to accompany the printed volumes of lectures to make the entire scene real. Dr. Jones gives us the warm, human, personal background into which we may place the lectures.

One of the major difficulties in a volume such as this is the absolute requirement of brevity. An average of only five pages was available for each speaker. Five pages are not enough. As Dr. Jones says, "Obviously anything like a

just appraisal of these powerful lectures in a single chapter, necessarily brief, is not possible. It is like attempting to photograph Mt. Everest by sections. It cannot be done successfully and I am painfully aware of that stubborn fact." Actually, the author does it surprisingly well.

The only other major difficulty apparently to the reader is that of organization. Not entirely satisfactory is the grouping of the various speakers under such headings as "Olympians," "Titans," "Educators and Schoolmen," "Modern Masters," "Shepherds of the Flock," etc. Dr. Jones was fully aware of this problem when he wrote, ". . . no complete classifying of these versatile ministers under any one heading is possible. For instance, some of the 'Olympians' were 'Theologians and Philosophers,' just as some who are classified under the latter heading were also superb craftsmen and faithful 'Shepherds of the Flock.' Still, on the whole, there seemed good reasons for the listings as they appear, and it is no secret to say that the author labored longer and with more anguish of mind and heart over this aspect of his work than on any other detail."

The book is well printed on good paper, has an excellent index, and two valuable appendices. The format and quality of binding are appropriate for so monumental a work.

BATSELL B. BAXTER

David Lipscomb College

MORE ABOUT WORDS. By Margaret S. Ernst. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1951; vi + 233; \$3.00.

As the author states in her foreword, *More About Words* "is not a book for the serious philologist but rather for those people who, like me, relish words and their changing histories, who think words are fun, and who may, using my book as a spring board, swim along in the peaceable currents of the dictionary." For any teacher of language skills who has been through the push-and-pull struggle of encouraging students to at least get their feet wet in the "currents" of vocabulary study, *More About Words* may very well provide a life-preserver as well as a springboard.

This book is attractively arranged with each word and its "biography" on a single page. Etymology is skillfully blended with humor and informality to delight and, at the same time, stimulate the student of words. The author's selection of these two hundred and thirty-odd words appears to be purely arbitrary but imaginative, and if the book has a failing it is only that it is far too short. However, as a motivating force for the reader for further investigation of words and their histories, *More About Words* should prove of definite value to the teacher.

Not the least attractive feature of the book is the illustration by W. A.

Dwiggins whose sketches capture the essence of each word description and enhances the book's readability.

PAUL S. HOSTETLER

Tulane University

FIVE PLAYS: By William Shakespeare. Introduction by Alan S. Downer. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1951; pp. xxv + 218; \$.75.

The five plays included in this volume are *Hamlet*, *King Lear*, *Henry IV Part I*, *Much Ado About Nothing*, *The Tempest*. The type is very clear and the paper binding makes a volume easy to hold and carry. The definitions of unfamiliar Elizabethan words at the bottom of each page facilitate reading of difficult passages. The introduction includes some helpful comments on Shakespeare and the Elizabethan stage plus remarks on the meaning and interpretation of each of the five plays.

For rehearsal or classroom purposes of these Shakespeare plays, this inexpensive volume will be invaluable.

DELWIN B. DUSENBURY

University of Florida

NEWS AND NOTES

Clyde McElroy of Waco, Texas joined the speech staff of Wake Forest College at the beginning of the second semester. He will direct the Wake Forest College Theatre and teach courses in drama and speech.

Two new courses were added to the speech curriculum at Wake Forest College at the beginning of the spring semester: "Business and Professional Speech" which is required of all students working toward the B.B.A. degree in the School of Business Administration and a course in "Radio Speech and Programs."

Dr. C. W. Edney, Head of the Department of Speech of the Florida State University, announces the return of Mr. Charles Reimer, Instructor in Speech in charge of Technical Theatre, who has been on a military leave of absence. Mr. Reimer served in Korea for one year.

The Department of Speech of Florida State University sponsored its Third Annual Invitational Debate Tournament on March 14 and 15, 1952. Events included debate, oratory, discussion, extemporaneous speaking, after dinner speaking, and oral interpretation.

Auburn debaters placed first among nine colleges and universities participating in the West Georgia Intercollegiate Debate Tournament held at West Georgia College, Carrollton, February 1-2, 1952. Two of the Auburn debaters received the highest individual scores among all participants. Joseph H. Mahaffey is debate coach.

Vanderbilt University reports a very successful production of an original play by B. Cheney, "Strangers in This World" with music by Charles Bryan. *Variety* gave the play a very favorable review. Another original, "Singin' Billy," by Donald Davison with music by Charles Bryan will be the next Vanderbilt production.

Georgetown College debater, George Price, scored highest individual rating in the recent debate tournament at Purdue University. Mrs. John Melzer is debate coach at Georgetown College.

Miss Elenor King has been appointed to the speech faculty at the University of Arkansas. Miss King will conduct dance clinics and design choreography for all musical productions.

The Alabama Correction Committee of the Alabama Speech Association held its quarterly meeting at Auburn, Alabama in January. The certification of correctionist was under discussion.

W. B. Whitaker, Rollins College, is on military leave having been recalled to naval service.

"Languages in World Leadership" was the theme of the Fifth University of Kentucky Foreign Language Conference April 24-26, 1952. The three lecturers were Nicholson B. Adams, Professor of Spanish, University of North

Carolina; Louis E. Lord, President, Bureau of University Travel, and Head Emeritus, Department of Classics, Oberlin College; and R. O. Roeseler, Head, Department of Germanic Languages and Literature, University of Wisconsin, and Editor of *Monatshefte*.

Approximately one hundred sixty scholars and teachers read papers on the various sections: Classical, Teaching of High School Latin, French, German, Spanish, Biblical and Patristic, Comparative Literature, Teaching of High School French and Spanish, Slavonic, and Linguistics. The Linguistics Sections are a new addition to this year's program.

The Fourth (1951) Conference drew an attendance of approximately 550 persons from 34 states and four foreign countries, representing twenty-six languages and 219 institutions.

The Conference was in charge of Jonah W. D. Skiles (Ancient Languages), Director, and Adolph E. Bigge (German) and L. Hobart Ryland (Romance Languages), Associate Directors.

The required speech course for all ministerial students at Baptist Theological Seminary in Louisville, Kentucky has been increased to the extent that Dr. William Benfield, Presbyterian minister, has been added to the Department of Speech. Charles A. McGlon, Professor of Speech at the Seminary and a past President of the Southern Speech Association, received his Ph.D. degree from the Department of Speech, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, April 13, 1951. Dr. Kramer was his major professor. The work in religious drama at Baptist Seminary in Louisville is being expanded considerably this year. Three one-act plays are now in rehearsal, and a series of TV religious dramas to be projected over the 50,000 watt Station WHAS in Louisville is being readied. Dr. Charles A. McGlon has been engaged by the U. S. Army Quartermaster Depot in Jeffersonville, Indiana to teach a course in Effective Speech for the Military personnel of the Depot. The course meets once a week for a two hour session over a period of ten weeks. The plan is to repeat the course for different groups throughout the year.

Miss Frances Gooch has retired from teaching at Agnes Scott College and has her own studio in Atlanta. Address 754 Juniper Street.

James E. Popovich, University of Georgia, is on leave from the Speech and Drama Department. He is studying at Northwestern University.

Louise D. Davison, Director of the Davison School of Speech Correction, Atlanta, Georgia was given the Alumnae Award at Wesleyan College for distinctive achievement and pioneer work in the field of speech correction in the southwest.

The University of Tennessee Theatre in conjunction with a newly founded Knoxville Community Theatre, organized for the purpose of working with the U.T. Theatre inaugurated the Carousel Theatre, an open air summer theatre in the round. A six weeks program of four plays was presented last summer. Plans are to make this a year-round program.

Edna West, Georgia State College for Women, received her doctors degree from the University of Wisconsin.

Dr. C. W. Edney, Head of the Department of Speech of The Florida State University, announces four new appointments to the faculty:

Dr. Francis Cartier, assistant professor who has his Ph.D. from the University of Southern California, was Lecturer in Phonetics at Trinity College of the University of London in 1950-51.

Mr. Frank Hanson, who is completing his Ph.D. at Yale University, joins the staff as an assistant professor. Mr. Hanson will instruct in drama.

Mr. Wyn Park, instructor and technical director, has his M.A. from Western Reserve, was the technical director of the Player's Guild (Community Theatre) of Canton, Ohio for the past three years.

Mr. Douglas Russell, instructor and costumer has his M.A. from Stanford University, was the costumer at Carnegie Institute of Technology last year.

Norman DeMarco, professor in the department of speech and dramatic art, was recently appointed manager of the new Fine Arts Center at the University of Arkansas. Mr. DeMarco continues to teach courses in radio and is production director of the University recorded programming service.

The Department of Speech of The Florida State University has been actively participating in the University's "Operation Bootstrap" educational program to nearby Air Force Bases. Under this program the department offers many of its speech courses to the officers and enlisted men of the Air Force. Each week instructors from the department go to Eglin and Tyndall Air Bases in Florida and Turner Air Base in Georgia.

Professor Claude L. Shaver, Louisiana State University, this year is on leave from the Department of Speech. He is teaching in the Canal Zone for the General Extension Division of the university with headquarters in the city of Balboa.

The University of Florida Department of Speech announces the following changes and additions to its faculty: Dr. Lew Sarett is visiting professor teaching his courses in the Teaching of Speech, Sarett on Writing and Speech, Advanced Forms of Public Address, and Building the Professional Lecture; Thomas Battin, nearing the doctorate at Michigan, comes as Assistant Professor of Radio and Television; Charles Ingram, Stanford, as interim instructor is replacing Dr. Robert Dierlam who has resigned and is holding a Fulbright grant for the year doing research in theatre history in Vienna; Jack Benson, M.A., University of West Virginia, becomes a full time clinician, replacing Mrs. Sheila Morrison, who has resigned to accept a graduate assistantship at Ohio State.

S.S.A. PLAYS

Memphis State College—Dir. Don Streeter

The Curious Savage, Twelfth Night, Little Foxes

Fisk University—Dir. Dr. Lillian W. Voorhees

Double Door

Converse College—Dir. Hazel Abbott

Young and Fair, The Lady's Not for Burning

University of Tennessee—Dir. Paul Soper

Detective Story

Georgia St. College for Women—Dir. Edna West

Brief Music, Pygmalion

Agnes Scott College—Drs. Roberta Winters, George Neely

Emory University

The Servant in the House, Escape, I Remember Mama

Delta State Teachers College—Dir. Ruth Williams

I Have Five Daughters

Florida State University—Drs. Carl Zerke, Frank Hanson, George McCalmon

You Can't Take It With You, A Phoenix Too Frequent, All My Sons

University of Georgia—Dir. Leighton M. Ballew

Summer and Smoke, Pygmalion, Twelfth Night, The Heiress

Louisiana State University—Dir. Don Blakely

Dr. Knock

University of Arkansas—Drs. V. L. Baker, Dr. M. Blair Hart, Norman DeMarco

Medea, You Can't Take It With You, The Innocents, Its Surprising (Operetta), The Merry Wives of Windsor, Summer and Smoke

University of Florida—Drs. Delwin D. Dusenbury, Charles Ingram

An Evening With Christopher Fry, Years Ago, Come Back Little Sheba, Skylark

T.V. Theatre Presentations—Dir. Corinne Rickert

WMBR—TV Jacksonville, Fla.

The Marriage Proposal, Lady Windemere's Fan

University of Kentucky—Dir. Gifford Blyton

Glass Menagerie

David Lipscomb College—Dir. Ora Crabtree

The Heiress, Midsummer Night's Dream

Wake Forest College Theatre—Drs. Billy Waddell, Clyde McElroy

The Lady's Not for Burning, Romeo and Juliet

Converse College—Dir. Hazel Abbott

The Lady's Not for Burning

William and Mary Theatre—Dir. Althea Hunt

Merchant of Venice, The Miser

University of Arkansas—Guest Dir. Frank McMullan (Yale University)

Merry Wives of Windsor

Southern Methodist University—Drs. J. B. McGrath, Edith Renshaw,

David Russell

*Jenny Kissed Me, The Adding Machine, Alice-Sit-By-The-Fire,
Barefoot in Athens, Arms and the Man*

Madison College—Dir. Mary E. Latimer

Blithe Spirit

Florida State University—Dirs. George McCalmon, Reuben Silver,

Frank Hanson

Biography, Pierre Patelin, The Deluge, The Mistress of the Inn

University of Georgia—Dir. Leighton M. Ballew

Twelfth Night

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